DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 112 376 CS 002 161

TITLE	Teaching Reading Skills. Volume I.
INSTITUTION	Montgomery County Public Schools, Rockville, Md.
REPORT NO	Bull-246
PUB DATE	71
NOTE	297p.; Several pages will have marginal reproducibility due to small type; See related documents CS002162 and CS002163
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.76 HC-$14.59 Plus Postage
DESCRIPTORS	Course Descriptions; Evaluation Methods; Language Skills; Primary Education; *Reading Instruction; *Reading Programs; *Reading Skills; *Teaching Methods

ABSTRACT

This bulletin describes the reading program in the Montgomery County (Maryland) Public Schools and provides guidelines to help teachers assess the individual strengths and needs of their students. Ways in which the teacher may organize the classroom and ways in which children may be grouped in order to facilitate their learning are suggested. The bulletin also lists instructional materials and provides guidelines for selecting these materials in order to meet specific teaching purposes. A glossary of reading terms and a packet of assessment tasks are included. (LL)

****
* Documents acquired by ERIC include many informal unpublished *
* materials not available from other sources. ERIC makes every effort *
* to obtain the best copy available. Nevertheless, items of marginal *
* reproducibility are often encountered and this affects the quality *
* of the microfiche and hardcopy reproductions ERIC makes available *
* via the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). EDRS is not *
* responsible for the quality of the original document. Reproductions *
* supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made from the original. *
****

ED112376

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

TEACHING READING SKILLS

(Working Copy)

Volume I

Bulletin No. 246

Montgomery County Public Schools
Rockville, Maryland
Homer O. Elseroad
Superintendent of Schools

CS 002 161

Copyright 1971
by the
Board of Education of Montgomery County
Rockville, Maryland

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPYRIGHTED MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Board of Education of
Montgomery County
TO ERIC AND ORGANIZATIONS OPERATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION. FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM REQUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT OWNER."

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPYRIGHTED MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Rockville,
Maryland
TO ERIC AND ORGANIZATIONS OPERATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION. FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM REQUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT OWNER."

PREFACE

The purpose of this bulletin is to define the program of reading instruction in the Montgomery County Public Schools. It represents a synthesis of conclusions and recommendations drawn from research, authorities in the field of language and reading, and the experience of teachers. It defines and describes the reading skills. It provides guidelines to help teachers assess the individual strengths and needs of their students. It suggests ways in which the teacher may organize the classroom and ways in which children may be grouped in order to facilitate their learning. It lists useful instructional materials and provides guidelines for selecting them to meet specific teaching purposes. Finally, it suggests the resources that are available to teachers who are seeking to sharpen their own instructional skills or to secure needed services for children. Implicit throughout the bulletin is the expectation that the teacher respect each child as a person with very human needs.

While this bulletin offers a set of guidelines for teaching some phases of the reading program, it does not at this point deal with all of the complex issues which must be resolved in teaching reading. Although reading is but one facet of the interrelated language processes of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, this bulletin deals only with reading. It focuses primarily on those skills of reading which enable the child to reconstruct sound and meaning from the printed symbols. However, the bulletin does not deal with the development of the more advanced comprehension skills which are inherent in abstract thinking, critical reading, and creative thinking. Nor does it deal in great detail with the complicated problems of that child who does not learn to read by methods that serve most of the children well.

The looseleaf format of the bulletin has been adopted in order to provide for updating and revising some of the sections as experience and feedback indicate the need for such revision. This expandable format also facilitates the addition of sections that are not provided at this time but are necessary in dealing with a comprehensive program of reading instruction. At a later date, guidelines for working with other reading skills will be added. As presently projected, these guidelines would deal with such areas as:

Pre-reading activities

Reading disabilities

Comprehension and critical reading skills

Affective goals and reading habits

This bulletin should be used in conjunction with other MCPS curriculum materials. These are available through the educational materials laboratory in each school or by ordering from the Division of Supply Management, Lincoln Center.

The MCPS publications include:

. . .And All This IS Reading, Primary Reading Handbook, Bulletin 203, 1967.

English Language Arts Literature Program K-12, Bulletin 185-1, 1965 (Elem. Level).

This bulletin has three main sections and is in looseleaf form.

Section I Literature – (contains illustrative units)

Section II Language
Section III Composition

The Language Arts, A Curriculum Guide for Elementary Schools, 1965.

Spelling Handbook for Montgomery County Public Schools (K-12), Bulletin 181, 1965.

Writing in the Elementary School, Bulletin 180, 1964.

Chart – *Reading Skills and Behavioral Outcomes – K-12*, A Tentative Scope and Sequence Chart, 1962.

Language Arts Mini-Reports

Individualized Learning – December 1969 – No. 1
Look, Look. Find George – January 1970 – No. 2
Look at Me, Teach! – March 1970 – No. 3
. . . but what's the question – April 1970 – No. 4
OVERHEARD. . . – May 1970 – No. 5
WHAT'S. . .the main idea? – June 1970 – No. 6
FOR YOUR INFORMATION – December 1970 – No. 7
Put a Little Fun in Your Life: Try Literature – January 1971 – No. 8
What Can I Do About Handwriting? – March 1971 – No. 9
Let's Get Down to the Core of Things . . . – May 1971 – No. 10

CONTENTS

Page

I. THE READING PROGRAM IN THE MONTGOMERY COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS 1

POINT OF VIEW 1

The reading program in the MCPS is an integral part of the language program 1
The reading program in MCPS is described in three components 1
The reading program in MCPS is developed around a defined set of reading skills that all youngsters are expected to acquire 2
The reading program in the MCPS is designed to offer appropriate alternatives for teaching to the individual strengths and needs of each child 2

THE ROLE OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER 2

SUPPORT SYSTEMS FOR TEACHERS 3

II. THE SKILLS OF READING 5

DEFINITION OF READING 5

GRAPHO-PHONIC INFORMATION 6

SYNTACTIC INFORMATION 6

SEMANTIC INFORMATION 7

READING SKILLS LIST 9

DISCUSSION OF READING SKILLS 15

Realizes that written words represent spoken words 15
Relates alphabetic symbols to language sounds in context 16
Relates letter patterns in a left-to-right sequence to corresponding patterns of language sounds (words) 16
Uses structural clues to word recognition 17
Uses knowledge of one-syllable word patterns to recode words of more than one syllable 17
Decodes abbreviations 18
Uses context (semantic clues) 18
Uses grammatical structure (syntactic clues) to derive meaning 19
Uses typographic clues to phrase and sentence meaning 19
Reads orally to convey meaning 19

READING SKILLS CHECKLIST 20

III. PLANNING AND ORGANIZING FOR TEACHING READING 23

LEARNING ABOUT INDIVIDUAL STRENGTHS AND NEEDS 23

Individual differences in learning style 23
Sensory orientation 23
Responsive mode 23
Thinking pattern 24

WAYS OF ASSESSING ACHIEVEMENT 24

The reading skills as a basis for assessment 24
Observations and teacher judgments 25
Tests and informal reading inventories (IRI) 26

ORGANIZING FOR INSTRUCTION 27

Grouping students 28
Organizing the classroom 29
Independent activities 29
Learning centers 30
Teacher-pupil conferences 32

CHOOSING INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS TO MEET INDIVIDUAL NEEDS 33

Basal readers 33
Programmed readers 35
Language experience materials 36
Library books and textbooks 37

SUMMARY 38

IV. RESOURCES 39

WHERE CAN I TURN FOR HELP? 39

CONSIDER WHAT YOU CAN DO TO HELP YOURSELF 39

USE THE SERVICES THAT ARE AVAILABLE IN YOUR SCHOOL 43

DRAW ON THE SUPPORTING SERVICES AVAILABLE IN YOUR ADMINISTRATIVE AREA 43

MAKE GOOD USE OF THE SERVICES AVAILABLE AT THE EDUCATIONAL SERVICES CENTER (WASHINGTON CENTER) IN ROCKVILLE 44

TAKE ADVANTAGE OF PROFESSIONAL GROUPS, COMMUNITY RESOURCES, AND TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS THAT ARE AVAILABLE IN THE LARGER COMMUNITY 45

AFFILIATE WITH LOCAL, REGIONAL, AND NATIONAL PROFESSIONAL GROUPS AND THEIR CONFERENCES AND SUBSCRIBE TO PROFESSIONAL JOURNALS 45

WHERE CAN I FIND OUT . . .? 45

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF PROFESSIONAL REFERENCE BOOKS 47

APPENDIX A – FURTHER DISCUSSION OF READING SKILLS WITH SOME ILLUSTRATIVE ACTIVITIES A-1

APPENDIX B – SOME ILLUSTRATIVE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS B-1

I. THE READING PROGRAM IN THE MONTGOMERY COUNTY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

POINT OF VIEW

Extensive studies of language and language development have been conducted in the past decade. Research into methods of teaching reading has been greatly expanded. The practical problems that teachers face daily in helping children learn to read are of increasing concern to both the researcher and the practitioner. Admittedly, there is much that we still do not know about how children learn to read. There are many points that are subject to debate – and they are constantly debated. However, there are some clear guidelines for teaching reading that have been substantiated by both research and experience. These guidelines form the basis for teaching reading in the Montgomery County Public Schools.

The reading program in the MCPS is an integral part of the language program. Learning to use language effectively is one of the most pervasive tasks of every individual. We use language to share our experiences, our thoughts, and our feelings with others. We use language for exploring the experiences, thoughts, and feelings of others. We use language to recall the past, reflect on the present, and project into the future. We use language to communicate, to learn, and to imagine. Instruction in reading must be viewed in relation to all of these broad goals. Learning to read must be considered as one means to achieve these goals. It is difficult to separate reading from speaking, listening, and writing – even for purposes of discussion. In teaching, one cannot and should not separate reading from the development of all language abilities. However, for purposes of planning, organizing, developing, and evaluating instructional programs, the teaching of reading can be defined and described.

The reading program in MCPS is described in three components:

1. Teaching the skills of reading
2. Developing comprehension and critical reading abilities
3. Fostering the understanding and enjoyment of literature

A range of specific skills is necessary in order to reconstruct meaning from printed symbols. These are the bits and pieces of the reading process. The MCPS program is based on the position that students need systematic teaching and specific practice in order to acquire these skills in an effective and efficient manner. Thus, the teaching of the skills of reading is an important phase in the total reading program. But the reading program must go beyond this. Youngsters need to learn to evaluate the messages that come to them through printed symbols. They need to learn to understand the purposes, the viewpoint, and the biases of an author. And they need to learn to weigh the meaning for themselves of what they read. The MCPS reading program seeks ways of fulfilling these needs and developing these comprehension and critical reading abilities. Receiving a message, and evaluating and applying it is still not enough. Reading should be a happy and emotionally enriching experience. Fostering the understanding and enjoyment of literature is necessary to round out the reading program.

However, the main focus of *this* bulletin is the teaching of reading *skills* – a program that is described as having not only common objectives for every student, but also provisions for alternative means for reaching these objectives.

The reading program in MCPS is developed around a defined set of reading skills that all youngsters are expected to acquire. A major part of this bulletin is devoted to the definition of these skills and to descriptions of activities in which they are used. Four understandings are essential to the appropriate use of the list of reading skills:

1. It should be clear that if a youngster is to gain these skills systematically, he must be taught systematically. Leaving the development of skills to chance is both unproductive and unfair to boys and girls.

2. It should be clear that our emphasis is on the child's *use* of each skill in reading. Performing the skill in isolation is not enough. Merely reciting the rule is most often a waste of time. The appropriate goal is for boys and girls to use the skills as they read an expanding variety of materials.

3. It should be clear that many language skills must be developed before a youngster can learn the defined reading skills. Listening and speaking skills precede reading skills in a child's developmental processes. An understanding of the use of language – listening, speaking, and reading – must be firmly established prior to the teaching of reading skills.

4. It should be clear that youngsters will differ in the rate, pattern, and method by which they will learn the skills of reading. The sequence in which learnings will occur can be only suggested. The age at which an individual will learn certain skills can be only approximated. How much and how fast boys and girls can learn is truly an individual matter.

The reading program in the MCPS is designed to offer appropriate alternatives for teaching to the individual strengths and needs of each child. The program is based on the recognition that youngsters bring different skills and abilities to the task of learning to read. They bring different attitudes, interests, and motivations. They bring different learning styles. All of these are a reflection of normal human diversity. They are also a reflection of the differences in the home and community environments from which our students come. They are a reflection of the diversity that characterizes Montgomery County. The reading program is necessarily planned to recognize, utilize, and respond to that diversity. The reading program is planned with the recognition that various combinations of these factors – skills, abilities, attitudes, interests, motivations, and learning styles – determine the most appropriate and effective instructional program for individual youngsters and for groups of youngsters. Research into reading instruction clearly points out the fact that there is no one best way to teach reading. Most known methods and available materials work for some children, but none works for all children. Within the framework of a common set of reading skills for all youngsters, we provide alternative materials and patterns of learning.

THE ROLE OF THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

The classroom teacher is the central figure in the team of people who carry out the reading program in MCPS. *Whether, and how well, a child learns to read is very much dependent on his teacher.* No matter what curriculum guides a school system has – or how many kinds of instructional materials are available – the responsibility for knowing the strengths and needs of each youngster, and finding the means for helping him to develop new strengths, rests with the classroom teacher.

One responsibility of the teacher is to assess the strengths and needs of individual students and groups of students. The need for individual assessment is a major point of substantial agreement among reading specialists. There are other points of agreement about the task of assessment. First, assessment must begin early. A large part of the early years of schooling should be devoted to learning about strengths and needs of students. Second, assessment is a continuous process. Youngsters change; therefore, their strengths and needs change. Third, assessment must be specific. General descriptions are useful only for general purposes. In order to plan an instructional program, teachers must know the specific strengths and needs of individuals. Fourth, assessment must be recorded. If teachers are to continue their assessments of each student's achievements and communicate these to other appropriate people, the assessments must be kept in a written form.

The second responsibility of the teacher is to group youngsters for instruction. Faced with individual differences in achievements, interests, and learning styles, there are few times when a teacher can work with the total class for instructional purposes. The teacher has the responsibility of organizing youngsters into appropriate and effective instructional groups. Grouping is also a continuous process, because youngsters change in their strengths and needs. Teachers must view grouping as a flexible means of bringing youngsters together for instructional purposes. In addition to being flexible, grouping must also be purposeful. The teacher must identify purposes for grouping before organizing students into meaningful instructional groups.

The third responsibility of the teacher is to organize the instructional activities in the classroom. If the instructional program is to meet the strengths and needs of individual students and groups of students, children must be helped to work independently. They must be helped to pursue learning on their own. Teachers must be free to work with individuals and with groups, and at the same time provide guidance to youngsters who are working independently. The teacher organizes classroom activities with these guidelines in mind.

The fourth responsibility of the teacher is to select appropriate instructional materials and activities. This selection is based on assessment. It is guided by the strengths and needs of students. The ultimate goal is to match each student with the material or activities that will be most appropriate to him at a given point in time. Realistically, teachers should provide a range of materials and activities for youngsters. A teacher should select materials not only on the basis of what he knows about individuals, but also with the increasing help of students themselves.

The fifth responsibility of the teacher is, quite simply, to teach. All the activities of planning, organizing, and preparing are directed toward those ephemeral times that are called "teachable moments." They are the times when the teacher's questions, challenges, guidance, and information stimulate and foster students' learning. They are the times when the reading program becomes a living thing.

These tasks of the teacher are not separate – they are interrelated and interdependent. They are complex and they are continuous. Accomplishing all of these tasks is almost impossible. However, working consistently to achieve them will result in the best reading program for teaching to individual strengths and needs.

SUPPORT SYSTEMS FOR TEACHERS

The teacher's job is demanding and difficult. Teaching reading is a complex task. Responding realistically to a range of individual differences in students is a tremendous challenge. But the classroom teacher does not work without guidance. He works within the broadly defined guidelines of the county reading program. He works within the guidelines for teaching reading in his administrative area. And he works within both the guidelines for teaching reading in his school and the guidelines for meeting the needs of his students.

At the same time, the classroom teacher does not work without assistance. He is surrounded by a support system of people and materials. Just as the teacher is responsible to his students, there are instructional personnel who are responsible for providing useful guidance and assistance to teachers. And just as the student is responsible for learning to use the teacher's resources effectively, each teacher is responsible for learning to use the resources of his support system effectively.

In order to carry out an effective reading program, the teacher works as an integral part of the staff in his school. He must see himself as a part of a team that carries out a reading program; and he must be clear about the parts of the reading program for which he is responsible. The staff of each school, under the instructional leadership of the principal, must work as a unit in planning and carrying out its reading program. As the instructional leader of the school, the principal is the major resource to the classroom teachers. He must know the components of a good reading program. Furthermore, he must apply this knowledge in the development, within the county's curriculum framework, of the kind of program best suited to the needs of *all* children within his school. Working with his staff and his community, he must establish long-range and short-range objectives for the program and must effect some procedures for continuing analysis of needs, follow-through, and evaluation of progress in attaining objectives. His job, therefore, is to provide leadership, to facilitate communication, to make instructional alternatives available to teachers, and to see that materials of instruction without artificial grade level restrictions are provided to match children's needs and learning styles. No teacher, no matter how skillful, can be maximally effective without the support of the principal and staff within his own school.

Another kind of support that must be available to teachers is the help of people who can bring new materials, methods, and techniques to his attention. No teacher can be expected to keep up with an ever-expanding array of useful materials and techniques. He is dependent on others whose responsibility it is to know what is new and useful. The necessary support of this kind for teachers must be provided through supervisors, teacher specialists, and instructional materials specialists.

In addition to these supports that help the teachers to function more effectively in the classroom setting, the teacher needs the help of other specialist teachers who can deal with more complex diagnosis and remediation of reading difficulties. The support team to whom he turns for this kind of help is the reading teacher in his school, the area-based specialists in reading, the area-based reading diagnostician, and the school's pupil personnel worker and psychologist. Many teachers have instructional aides and community or parent volunteers who work with them in preparing materials and in tutoring individual students or small groups.

The teacher can also turn to references and professional materials for guidance and support. These are provided in the professional library in each school and through the Educational Materials Laboratory in the central office.

The MCPS provides guidance through suggested teaching activities (some of which are provided in this bulletin) and through critiques of instructional materials. The Curriculum Bank in Reading, now in preparation, is the best example of the latter.

The many workshops and in-service activities conducted by various members of the teacher's support system constitute one means of presenting new guidelines and guidance to teachers. Such activities provide opportunities for learning and for self-renewal, through involvement and interaction.

The reading program in MCPS is a system-wide challenge. It requires the active involvement of many, many people. And it requires a wide range of material resources. But when boys and girls learn to read to the full extent of their potential and learn to enjoy reading, all of our efforts are rewarded.

II. THE SKILLS OF READING

Reading instruction should be based on the strengths and needs of the child and may involve the use of various methods and materials. There are certain skills, however, which are needed in order to read English; and these form the framework of the instructional program.

DEFINITION OF READING

The following discussion has drawn a great deal upon the writings of Kenneth Goodman. In defining reading, it is pertinent to note the various aspects of the reading process as presented by Goodman:

- Reading begins with graphic language.
- Its purpose is the reconstruction of meaning.
- There is a direct relationship between oral language and written alphabetic language.
- Reading involves visual perception.
- There is nothing in the shape, sequence or grouping of letters which in itself is meaning.
- Meaning is in the minds of the writer and the reader.
- Readers reconstruct a message which agrees with the writer's intended message.[1]

From these various characteristics, Goodman arrives at his definition of reading: "Reading is a complex process by which a reader reconstructs, to some degree, a message encoded by a writer in graphic language."[2] It is "a psycholinguistic process, an interaction between thought and language."[3]

In delineating the skills of reading, we begin with the nature of language. Since the age of about two, a child has been learning to use an oral language code that enables him to communicate with others and to understand what others say to him. He has absorbed the rules of producing English sentences to the point at which he can not only repeat sentences he has heard, but also generate sentences that he has never heard before, which, since they follow well established rules, are understandable to other speakers of English.

The purpose of using language is to convey meaning. Language conveys meaning not through individual language sounds (phonemes) but by the patterning of language sounds into words and words into larger patterns of sentences. Patterning is the most important aspect of learning to speak or read English. A speaker begins with meaning and produces a sound sequence following the rules of his language code. This process of producing an oral signal Goodman has termed *encoding*. The listener associates the speaker's language signal with language he has learned through his own experiences, to recreate the speaker's meaning. This process of recreating meaning from the oral code Goodman calls *decoding*. The listener does not necessarily process every sound. As he has developed proficiency in the use of language, he has learned the significant differences in language sounds (phonemes) and the significant patterns of grammar (syntax). He does not need to listen to and identify each separate phoneme or word as it is uttered fairly rapidly by a speaker. Rather, from his knowledge of the phonological and grammatical systems of English, he can select certain cues; anticipate and predict the speaker's message; and, from a partial perception of what he hears, arrive at the speaker's meaning.

---

[1] Kenneth S. Goodman and Olive S. Niles, *Reading Process and Program*, (Champaign, Ill.: National Council of Teachers of English, 1970), p. 5.
[2] *Ibid.*
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 6

Much the same sequence is used in reading. The meaning in the mind of the writer is transformed by the writer into a graphic sequence based on the written language code (spelling rules, punctuation rules, syntactical rules, spacing and directional rules). This generating of a sequence of graphemes by the writer is *encoding*, just as was the generation of a speech sequence by the speaker. The reader must recreate the writer's meaning by associating his own language experiences and concepts with the written language. As in the case of listening, reading is a process of selecting partial cues and anticipating the message as one reads. In this process of partial perception of cues, the reader uses three kinds of language information available in the written passage. These three kinds of information have been termed grapho-phonic information, syntactic information, and semantic information.

GRAPHO-PHONIC INFORMATION

By grapho-phonic information is meant the information conveyed by the graphic shapes (letters, spelling patterns, spacing, punctuation patterns), by the sound patterns of the language, and by the relationship between the graphic shapes and sound patterns. In learning to read, the child matches the graphic sequences to sound sequences. The way in which he must do this is conditioned by the nature of written English. As an alphabetic writing system, it is a representation not of meaning but of oral language. Written symbols (letters) represent speech units (phonemes) rather than meaning. The relationship between oral and written English, however, is more than just a simple one-to-one correspondence of sounds and letters. One reason for its complexity is the basic stability of spelling patterns as compared to the changeableness of oral language. English spelling was standardized following the development of printing and has tended to remain stable. Oral language, on the other hand, has changed over the centuries and continues to change. A second reason has been the introduction into English of words from other languages. The tendency is to adapt such words to English pronunciation while retaining the spelling of the language of origin. A third factor complicating sound-spelling relationships is the use of affixes (prefixes and suffixes), which when added to English words may result in changes in stress and pronunciation but not in the corresponding spelling. Goodman gives as an example the change from *site* to *situate* – the *t* is retained, indicating the derivation from *site*; but the consonant sound represented by the *t* changes from /t/ to /ch/. This discussion, however, is not intended to imply that written English is as irregular as some reading authorities have suggested. On the contrary, it indicates that the patterns of sound-spelling relationships in English are systematic although complex.

SYNTACTIC INFORMATION

The second kind of information which assists the reader in decoding the writer's message is syntactic information. This includes the possible grammatical sequences of English sentences. The order in which words may appear in English sentences is one of the chief signals of meaning in English. Another important cue to sentence patterns is the use of words known as *function words* or *structure words*. These are words like *of, the, but,* and *where*, which have little meaning that can be defined or associated with experiences or referents in the real world, but which serve as a framework to signal the function of other words in a sentence. A third important syntactic cue to sentence meaning is the use of affixes – particularly the inflectional suffixes which convey the information of verb tenses, singular and plural and possessive forms of nouns, and comparison of adjectives and adverbs (*s, 's, ed, ing, er, est*). A fourth cue is the relation between the punctuation and space distribution in the written passage and the pitch, stress, and juncture patterns they represent. Finally, there is the knowledge of sentence transformation rules which enable a reader to transform certain English sentences, such as passive constructions, to arrive at meaning.

The use of syntactic cues has not been emphasized in traditional reading instructional programs, possibly because children appear to have the syntactic patterns of their language firmly under control by the time they start school. It cannot be assumed, however, that a child will automatically transfer this knowledge to the decoding of meaning in written materials; and a teacher should make sure that the child does use this kind of information in arriving at comprehension of written English.

SEMANTIC INFORMATION

The third kind of information the reader utilizes in responding to the writer's graphic sequence is semantic information. This consists of information derived from his prior experiences. It includes the concepts he has arrived at from those experiences. It also includes the vocabulary he has developed as a result of those experiences, which he relates to the author's message.

* * *

All three kinds of information are contained in a written passage, and the reader must use all three. Using only grapho-phonic information, for example, does not result in reading, only in word calling. Using all three together enables the reader to arrive at the author's meaning – in other words, to read.

In reading, the reader goes from the written code to its oral counterpart. This process Goodman terms *recoding*. "The child recodes graphic input as speech (either out-loud or internally) and then, utilizing his own speech as aural input, decodes as he does in listening."[4] *Recoding* thus means going from code to code, while *decoding* means going from code to meaning. For the fluent reader with good comprehension, recoding and decoding seem to be simultaneous. A fluent reader reads so rapidly that it appears that he goes directly from the graphic message to meaning, not perceiving and identifying every graphic cue but rather utilizing as few cues as possible in the way of grapheme-phoneme correspondences, syntactic patterns, and semantic information in order to arrive at decisions concerning the author's meaning and then testing his decisions by asking himself whether what he is reading makes sense. "In silent reading, the reader sweeps ahead sampling from the graphic input, predicting structures, leaping to quick conclusions about the meaning and only slowing down or regressing when subsequent sampling fails to confirm what he expects to find."[5] Comprehension through rapid, smooth reading, using as few cues as necessary and with few returns to previously read passages when decisions prove wrong, should be the goal of reading instruction.

Even when there is decoding from print to meaning, however, there may be some internal speech, particularly when the material is difficult. For difficult passages, even the fluent reader may find himself recoding the material into speech and then proceeding to decoding the meaning. Similarly, for beginning readers, the recoding and decoding processes are not simultaneous. Recognition of this fact has led the designers of various beginning reading programs to separate the processes for instructional purposes. Instruction is provided in matching letters, spelling patterns, and written words to sounds, sound patterns, and oral words. Goodman points out, however, that in these types of recoding instruction, the reader is confined to words or word parts. Such materials do not deal with syntactic or semantic information that is available in normal reading matter, and they do not result in meaning. Thus by the definition of reading given above, "recoding in itself is not reading."[6]

---

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 17.
[5] *Ibid.*, p. 19
[6] *Ibid.*, p. 18.

This bulletin has used the terms *encoding, recoding,* and *decoding* as they are used by Goodman. Both recoding and decoding are considered essential components of reading. As the bulletin deals to a great extent with beginning readers, the first and major part of the skills list deals with the sound-spelling relationships that involve recoding, while the last part of the skills list deals with meanings signaled by syntactic patterns. Although the bulletin also is concerned with the semantic information essential to reading, it does not include advanced reading skills involving complex semantic cues, when skilled readers no longer need to think consciously about recoding but are able to decode directly from print to meaning.

The skills are stated in the form of behavioral outcomes rather than in the topic form often found in reading skills lists. MCPS Bulletin No. 215, *Curriculum Design – Institutional Level,* 1968, identifies the developmental behaviors to be practiced by students in learning to read – the organizing elements of the curriculum design. Of the behavioral outcomes in the English Language Arts listed on page 86 of that document, the following are directly concerned with reading:

1. Distinguishes significant sounds

2. Recognizes sounds in meaningful combination

3. Distinguishes significant visual forms

4. Recognizes graphemic representations of sounds and words

5. Uses structural configurations, pictorial, and contextual clues to word recognition

6. Infers intonation patterns for punctuation. context, and syntactic structures

7. Pronounces words correctly

8. Uses pleasing and effective pitch, stress, pause, and volume

These general outcomes are broken down into more detailed specific outcomes in this section of *Teaching Reading Skills.* The section is divided into three parts. First, the list of skills is presented in outline form with examples in parentheses, so that a teacher may quickly perceive the overall structure of the skills list.

The second part is a brief discussion of the skills and how they relate to reading. The listing of the behaviors does not imply that every skill will need to be taught to every child. Some children will come to kindergarten already reading and will not need instruction in the simple sound-spelling correspondences listed under 3 of the reading skills list. Some children will make these associations inductively merely by watching and listening to the teacher discuss words as he puts children's stories on charts, or by getting help from the teacher as they write their own stories. Some children will need only a minimum of instruction in sound-spelling relationships before they are able to perceive and apply the principles independently. Other children will have more difficulty in perceiving these relationships and in applying what they have learned to new words. They will need many and varied experiences before they will be able to make these sound-spelling associations quickly and automatically as they read. In order to plan an appropriate program that will help the child attain reading skill, the teacher must know what the child is able to do.

Although the skills are presented in a linguistically-oriented format, this presentation does not imply the use of linguistic reading materials. These, it will be noted, are among the many types of reading materials listed in Appendix B. Other sections of the bulletin discuss various methods and materials which may be used in teaching reading. Being able to relate spelling patterns to sound patterns, however, is considered a behavior which should result from reading instruction – whether the child has been taught by phonics, language-experience, basal readers, programmed materials, linguistic methods, or any other method.

Neither does the listing of the skills imply a rigid order in which skills shall be acquired. It is recognized that not all children will acquire reading skills in the same sequence.

The third part of this section of the bulletin consists of a repetition of the skills in the form of a checklist. Different teachers will make different use of this list. Some may wish merely to have it at their desk for handy reference. Some may wish to duplicate it in order to keep a record of certain children's progress. Some may wish to keep such a duplicated record for each child as part of his permanent record. Some teachers may wish to share the list with children who would find it interesting and challenging to keep track of their own progress. Boxes are provided by each skill. The teacher may wish to indicate by a checkmark or date when the skill is introduced and when the child attains a reasonable degree of proficiency. The use made of this checklist form is up to the individual teacher's judgment as to how it fits best into his program.

The skills have not been ordered by grade or age level. Children attain reading skills at different ages and at different stages of development, and the major emphasis of the bulletin is on individualization of instruction to meet children's current needs. At the same time, it is recognized that some skills are usually learned during the early years, while others are more appropriately introduced to children in the intermediate and upper grades. The checklist indicates this progression in a general way by shading of the boxes next to the listed skills.

Appendix A contains a more detailed discussion of elements involved in each skill and some illustrative activities which may be helpful for teaching the skills or for informally checking whether the child has acquired them. These activities are designed mainly for reinforcement or practice of identified skills. They are not intended as the main instructional program nor as a substitute for the child's daily reading of materials of appropriate level and interest, or for his discussions with the teacher concerning areas in which he needs help with words and concepts, his areas of strength, and his progress. The activities section is far from complete. It is hoped that teachers will add to it those activities they have found useful for teaching the specific skills.

In order to avoid confusion in talking about relationships between spoken and written language, certain terms appear on the skills list in a way which needs explanation. The words *consonant* and *vowel* have been used to designate consonant and vowel *sounds only*. The abbreviations C and V have been used to designate consonant and vowel *letters*. A letter or sequence of letters which refers to a written letter or word is in italics. A speech sound (phoneme) or spoken sequence is represented by the phonemic symbols used by linguists, placed between two slanted lines. Thus the letter *c* represents the phoneme /k/; the letter *a* sometimes represents the phoneme /æ/; the printed letters *cat* represent the spoken sequence /kæt/.

READING SKILLS LIST

1. Realizes that written words represent spoken words

    a) Recognizes familiar words in environment (*desk, red, Texaco, STOP*

    b) Recognizes frequently used words at sight (*of, put, are, one, to, two, was*

2. Relates alphabetic symbols to language sounds in context
    - a) Recognizes consonants and vowels as speech sounds that are combined to make spoken words
    - b) Identifies letter that represents beginning sound of a word
    - c) Identifies letter that represents beginning sound of several words
3. Relates letter patterns in a left-to-right sequence to corresponding patterns of language sounds (words)
    - a) Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel-consonant/ phoneme pattern represented by:
        - (1) CVC letters
            - (a) With no initial C letter (*Al, am, an, as, at, ax, Ed, if, in, is, it, on, or, ox, up, us*)
            - (b) With differing initial C letters (*cat, bat, hat, mat, rat, sat*)
            - (c) With differing final C letters (*cap, can, cat; pig, pin, pit*)
            - (d) With differing medial V letters (*hat, hit, hot, hut; bag, beg, big, bog, bug*)
        - (2) CVC + *e*
            - (a) With no initial C letter (*Abe, ace, age, ale, ape, ate, eve, ire, ode, ore*)
            - (b) With differing initial C letters (*bake, lake, cake, make, sake, take, wake*)
            - (c) With differing final C letters (*made, make, mane, mare, mate*)
            - (d) With differing medial V letters (*pale, pile, pole*)
        - (3) CV + doubled C letters
            - (a) With no initial C letter (*add, all, Ann, ebb, egg, ill, inn, odd, off*)
            - (b) With final *-ff, -ll, -ss, -tt, -zz (muff, mill, miss, mutt, jazz)*
            - (c) With final *-all, -oll, -oss, -ull (ball, boll, boss, bull)*
            - (d) With final *-ck (back, pick, rock, luck)*
        - (4) CVVC
            - (a) With no initial C letter (*eat, eel, aid, ail, aim, oaf, oak, oat, oil, out, owl, own, auk, awl*)
            - (b) With no final C letter (*sea, see, too, cow, low, paw, dew*)

- (c) With initial and final C letters (*beat, beet, chief, bait, vein, great, boil, boot, newt, feud, suit, group, boat, bowl, soul, town, bout, dead, could, book, touch, taut, bawl, cough*)

- (5) C digraphs
    - (a) Initial (*ship, thin, this, whip, phone, chip, chef*)
    - (b) Final (*dish, bath, rich, graph, rich, sing, rough*)
    - (c) C digraph + *e* (*bathe, ache, gauche*)

b) Recodes one-syllable words with consonant clusters

- (1) Initial
    - (a) C or C digraph + *r* (*brag, crab, drop, fret, grab, prim, trip, shrub, throb*)
    - (b) C + *l* (*blot, clap, flag, glad, plan*)
    - (c) *s* + C (*scan, skip, slip, smog, snap, spot, stop, swim*)
    - (d) *qu-, dw-, tw-, wh-* (*quit, dwarf, twin, what*)
    - (e) 3 C letters = 3 sounds (*scrap, split, spring, squab, strut*)
- (2) Final
    - (a) CC (*act, aft, elf, elk, elm, alp, melt, imp, end, ink, ant, lynx, apt, ask, gasp, last, next*)
    - (b) C + C digraph (*gulch, Ralph, Welsh, heath, width, pinch, ninth triumph, twelfth*)
    - (c) *-ald, -alt, -ild, -old, -ost* (*bald, halt, wild, mind, bold, most*)
    - (d) CC*e* (*bulge, else, dance, range*)

c) Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel/ phoneme pattern represented by:

- (1) CV or CCV (*be, she, by, try, go*)
- (2) CV + *e* or *y* (*day, prey, die, dye, buy, doe, due, boy*)

d) Recodes two-syllable words ending in *y* (*bunny, daddy, funny, lady, pony*)

e) Recodes words with V letter followed by *r* (*car, card, care, carrot, carol*)

f) Recodes words with *c* or *g* followed by *e, i,* or *y* (*cell, cite, cyst, place, gem, magic, gym, age*)

g) Recodes words with letters which represent no sound (*gnat, knot, wrap, two, lamb, bough, hymn, debt, scene, edge, sigh, sign, sight, could, calf, talk, isle, itch, guard, quay*)

h) Recodes frequently used words which do not conform to sound-spelling patterns

4. Uses structural clues to word recognition

a) Decodes compound words (*playground, sandbox, twenty-one, merry-go-round*)

b) Decodes words with inflectional and derivational affixes:

(1) Noun plural inflections (*boys, wishes, flies, oxen, wolves, mice, sheep, tomatoes*)

(2) Noun possessive inflections (*boy's, children's, boys'*)

(3) Verb number and tense inflections (*finds, fixes, moved, seeing*)

(4) Adjective and adverb comparison inflections (*louder, loudest, faster, fastest*)

(5) Derivational prefixes and suffixes (*thankful, marvelous, unable, reorder, precede*)

c) Decodes contractions (*can't, he's, he'd, I'll, I'm, we're, we've*)

5. Uses knowledge of one-syllable word patterns to recode words of more than one syllable

a) Recognizes syllables in spoken words as units of language consisting of a vowel alone, a vowel preceded or followed by consonants, or a syllabic consonant

b) When a V letter is followed by two different C letters and a V letter (VCCV), pronounces first syllable with a short vowel or a vowel affected by /r/

c) When a V letter is followed by doubled C letters, pronounces the first syllable with a short vowel followed by a single consonant sound

d) Uses medial C clusters as a guide to pronunciation

e) When a V letter is followed by a single C letter and another V letter (VCV), pronounces the first syllable as an open syllable with a glided (long) vowel or with a schwa, or as a closed syllable ending in the consonant, with an unglided (short) vowel.

f) Pronounces medial C digraphs as single consonant sounds

g) When a word ends in C + *le*, uses spelling pattern as a guide to pronouncing stressed first syllable, and pronounces last syllable as consonant + /l/ or /əl/

h) Decodes words in which adjacent V letters represent two vowel sounds in separate syllables

i) Combines pronounced syllables and adjusts pronunciation to produce a word with sounds and stress heard in normal speech

6. Decodes abbreviations

   a) Of common titles (*Mr. Mrs., Dr.*)

   b) Of days, months, parts of addresses, measurement terms, *a.m., p.m., etc.*

7. Uses context (semantic clues)

   a) To anticipate and verify recoding of printed words into spoken words

   b) To hypothesize meaning of word not in oral vocabulary

   c) To decode homographs (*bat, band, desert, lead*)

   d) To decode homophones (*there-their, beat-beet*)

8. Uses grammatical structure (syntactic clues) to derive meaning

   a) Uses word order clues (*man bites dog; dog bites man*)

   b) Uses inflectional and derivational contrasts (*he likes it; he liked it. He was thankful; he was thankless.*)

   c) Uses structure words as clues to sentence meaning

      (1) Noun determiners: article (*a, an, the*); possessive adjectives (*my, his, their*); demonstrative adjectives (*this, these, those*); cardinal and ordinal adjectives (*three, first, tenth*); indefinite adjectives (*some, few, most*); interrogative adjectives (*which, whose, what*)

      (2) Verb markers, or auxiliaries (forms of *be, have,* and *do; can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, would, ought to*)

      (3) Phrases markers, or prepositions (*up, in, above, on, to, for*)

      (4) Question markers (*who, why, how, when, what, whose*)

      (5) Clause markers, or conjunctions (*because, if, that, how, when, why*)

      (6) Sentence connectors, or coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, for, nor, or, yet, so*)

      (7) Intensifiers (*very, more, most, little, less, least, awfully, really, rather, too*)

      (8) Starters (*Well, Oh, Say, Look, Listen, O.K.*)

9. Uses typographic clues to phrase and sentence meaning

   a) Spacing as a signal of structural units (*bluebird — blue bird*)

b) Capital letters as signals of sentence beginnings, proper nouns

c) Punctuation

(1) Marks within words (apostrophe, hyphen)

(2) End marks (period, question mark, exclamation point)

(3) Internal marks (comma, semicolon, colon, dash)

(4) Special marks (quotation marks, parentheses)

d) Variations in type size, face, and placement (titles, captions, italics, boldface type)

10. Reads orally to convey meaning

a) Uses context to determine intonation

b) Uses punctuation marks as signals of intonation contours

(1) Reads simple statements with a normal intonation contour /231*/ and primary stress on last structure in sentence

(2) Uses normal intonation contour /231*/ for questions requiring a substantive answer

(3) Uses "question" contour /223*/ for questions requiring a yes-or-no answer

(4) Uses /3*/ or /4*/ pitch and moves primary stress according to context and exclamation point

(5) Uses appropriate pause where signalled by a comma in a series, around an appositive, or between clauses

---

*The numbers refer to relative levels of pitch which are explained on page A-133 of Appendix A.

DISCUSSION OF READING SKILLS

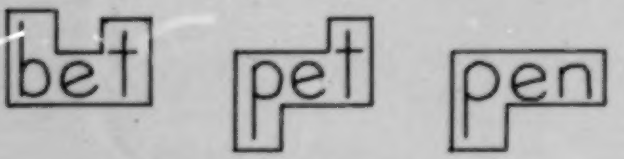
1. Realizes that written words represent spoken words

A most elementary reading skill which children begin to acquire before they start to school is the realization that written words stand for spoken words. The preschool or kindergarten child sees printed material all around him – on his breakfast cereal box; on television; and on bill boards, road signs, and store posters that he sees as he rides in the family car. Gradually he realizes that these printed words and phrases stand for the words he has already learned to speak. When he goes to kindergarten, he learns written symbols for words that represent the things he sees around him in the classroom as the teacher labels the familiar items in the room like *door, chalkboard,* and *sink*, or if he sees a chart of colors with the name of each color printed beside a sample. The child will "read" these words and associate them with the spoken words, even though he is as yet unfamiliar with our alphabetic writing system and the ways in which it represents oral language. Similarly, children learn to read many familiar words and phrases (even sentences) as the teacher records the words children use to talk about and express their experiences and daily ventures. Such recognition of familiar words in print should be helpful when the child is introduced to sound-letter relationships, and should make the process of learning to read a natural and easy extension of oral language experience.

A point for the teacher to keep in mind is that the written word is chiefly a *symbol* for the spoken word. The spoken word itself is in turn a symbol for real things or ideas, because speakers of English have over the centuries attached certain meanings to oral symbols. In reading, then, the child must do two things: first, he must relate printed words to spoken words, either orally or in his thinking; second, he must relate the spoken symbols to the real objects or actions or abstract ideas they represent.

As a young child sees the teacher recording his dictated stories and captions on the chalkboard or on paper, he will become aware of certain words at sight. Many of these will be nouns – names of familiar objects. Some short simple words – prepositions, pronouns, forms of *be* and *have*, common verbs which have irregular spelling – will also become familiar. Many words that have regular sound-spelling relationships will be learned as sight words before the sound-spelling patterns are introduced. When a pattern is introduced, knowing some examples at sight should help the child in learning other words with similar patterns.

As children begin to learn these first words, some will have difficulty in discriminating letters and short words like *pet* and *bet* or *pet* and *pen*. To help some children see the difference, it may be useful for the teacher to point out the different configurations of such words. For example:



Recognizing a word by its gross configuration, however, is useful only in the beginning stages of reading. Discriminating between such gross configurations as those illustrated above is not a useful reading skill for mature readers, because there are too many words that look alike. It must be replaced by skill in recognizing letter patterns and relating them to sound patterns. For this reason, dealing with configuration is not listed separately as a reading skill -- although it may be useful for the teacher to help some children over perceptual hurdles in the early stages of reading.

In order to acquire a "stockpile" of sight words, children need daily experiences in using oral language to express their thoughts; in seeing their own words transformed into written stories, charts, and booklets; and in reading their own stories aloud. For a more complete discussion see:

Mini-Report No. 5

R. V. Allen and Claryce Allen:
Language Experiences in Reading, Volumes I, II, III
Language Experiences in Early Childhood

2. **Relates alphabetic symbols to language sounds in context**

As children become aware of letters and their use in words and the distinction between consonant vowel letters, it will be helpful for them to understand the concept of consonants and vowels in speech. speech. A vowel may be defined as a speech sound formed without any stoppage of the oral cavity or any constriction so narrow as to create friction. A consonant may be defined as a sound involving some constriction of the air passage from the lungs, this constriction being produced by the lower lips, the tongue, or the soft palate moving against various articulation points (the upper lips, teeth, the alveolar ridge behind the upper teeth, or the palate).

Since written English is an alphabetic system in which graphic symbols represent speech sounds, a child must be able to associate the written graphemes, or letters, with the language sounds he hears in spoken English. A beginning step is to relate a consonant letter to the sound it represents in a word (not a sound in isolation). Another task is to associate the letter at the beginning of a child's name (which will be among the first words he learns to read and write), with the first sound he hears as his name is pronounced.

Although children need to know the names of the letters, the essential task here is not to name the letter but to relate its visual shape to the sound it represents. Therefore, it is suggested that the teacher plan activities in which the letters are displayed.

3. **Relates letter patterns in a left-to-right sequence to corresponding patterns of language sounds (words)**

One sometimes hears that "English is not a phonetic language." Since our definition of "phonetic" is "of or pertaining to speech sounds," and since languages are made up of speech sounds, it will be recognized that all languages are phonetic. What is really meant is that our English writing system is not wholly phonemic – that is, there is not a wholly consistent one-to-one relationship between language sounds (phonemes) and written language symbols (graphemes, or letters). English spelling has been derived from a variety of languages, and English pronunciation has undergone considerable change over the centuries. Consequently, it is our spelling system which appears at first look to be hopelessly inconsistent and irregular. It will be found, however, that English spelling does fall into a number of major patterns. A beginning reader needs to learn to recognize these patterns and relate them to spoken words, then to apply his knowledge of these patterns to unfamiliar written words in order to associate the latter with words in his oral vocabulary.

The major patterns of English written words delineated in 3. of the reading skills list are grouped in such a way that the teacher should be able to ascertain readily whether the child can recode them into spoken words. The spelling patterns are listed from the simplest to the longer, more complex. The order of presentation is not intended to indicate the order in which they should be taught. The sequence of presentation of word patterns will vary with different approaches and materials. Neither does the presentation of patterns imply the use of any particular method of teaching these sound-letter correspondences.

It should be remembered that any child who has been exposed to a consistent process of language experience has already been exposed to virtually every spelling pattern that needs to be learned. Most of these patterns will appear in the very first stories that children compose and will be repeated in new stories. For some children, it will be necessary only to make them aware of the different patterns and of how many they read often and easily in the familiar stories they have composed or in the easy reading materials they have enjoyed. Helping each child to understand that he has already mastered and is using many patterns is an important step in encouraging natural reading.

4. Use structural clues to word recognition

Phonemes are combined into the smallest units of meaning – morphemes. A morpheme is a meaningful group of sounds which cannot be divided into a smaller meaningful unit. Or, as Francis has put it, "morphemes are the building blocks out of which the meaningful utterances of speech are put together."[7] Thus the word *the* is a morpheme; so is *cat*. So is *-ed* because it means past tense. Morphemes may be divided into bases and affixes – what we also call root words, and prefixes and suffixes. Morphemes are classified as "free or bound." A free morpheme may occur alone as a separate word: *boy, any, run*. A bound morpheme never appears alone but is always tied to other morphemes to make a word. Thus all prefixes and suffixes are bound morphemes. There are also a number of bases or roots which are bound morphemes, because they never occur without a prefix. For example, *–clude, –tain* and *–stant* never appear alone but are always preceded by a prefix: *include, preclude, obtain, retain, constant, instant.* In addition to complex words consisting of a base with one or more affixes, there are compound words consisting of two bases.

Children will learn to combine these morphemic units in speech from the time they begin to talk; and by the time they enter school, they will use many combinations easily in their speech. What they will need as they progress in reading is to relate their knowledge of the meaningful units of oral speech to the representation of such units on the printed page, in order to derive meaning from these structural clues.

5. Uses knowledge of one-syllable word patterns to recode words of more than one syllable

Many reading authorities have considered the ability to divide a word into syllables and apply generalizations about pronunciation an important word recognition skill. Other authorities, however, have questioned the usefulness of learning syllabication rules as a long-term reading skill. A third view is that syllabication would be useful if it were taught properly, but that what has traditionally been taught to children about syllables is all wrong. One reason for this confusion, perhaps the main one, is a failure to distinguish between a syllable in writing and a syllable in speech. Like *consonant* and *vowel*, the term *syllable* refers to both a spoken unit and a group of letters. This distinction should be clear to every teacher who is teaching children to read words of more than one syllable.

---

[7] W. Nelson Francis, *The Structure of American English,* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958) p. 173.

Teachers must help children to be aware of the fact that spoken language and written language are two entirely different systems which have a relationship but do not correspond exactly, and that there is no one-to-one correspondence between syllables in speech and syllables in written words. Any division of written words into syllables is useful for word recognition only if this difference is recognized.

6. Decodes abbreviations

Abbreviations fall into a class by themselves rather than under structural analysis, as the child in recognizing an abbreviation does not take it apart as he does a compound word or a contraction. The cues of period and in some cases capitalization help him to recognize these abbreviations. The beginning reader will probably run across the abbreviations *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, and *Dr.* in very easy books, preprimers and primers. He will learn to recognize these at sight, using the cues of capital letter and period. Later he will learn the abbreviations for days of the week, month of the year, parts of addresses such as St. and Ave., name of states, and common measurement terms. Abbreviations are unit-symbols for words (logograms) rather than phonemic combinations, and the period is an indication that they are to be read as a symbol for a whole word rather than being read phonemically (exceptions are *a.m.* and *p.m.* which are now read as letters instead of as "ante meridiem" and "post meridiem") Some abbreviations omit the last part of the word (*Mon.*, *Oct.*); some omit the middle of the word (*Mr.*, *pt.*), and some bear no resemblance to the word (*lb.*).

7. Uses context (semantic clues)

Recognizing words without deriving meaning from the printed page is not really reading. As the child reads, he can use the context of what he is reading in several ways to help him arrive at meaning.

The sentence context in which a word appears may give a clue to recognizing and pronouncing a word which is already in the child's oral vocabulary, but which he does not readily recognize in print. A child should be able to use context for this purpose at any level of reading proficiency (1) if the word in question is in his oral vocabulary; (2) if the sentence structure is a familiar one; and (3) if he has learned the word recognition techniques needed to identify the word. Reading experts feel that using context plus a minimum amount of letter-sound relationships analysis focused on the beginning letters of the word is superior to use of either context alone or to intensive analysis of single words which ignores the contextual setting.

Context may also be used to hypothesize the meaning of words not in the child's oral vocabulary. The child will encounter words in his reading which he can recode using his knowledge of common sound-spelling relationships, but which will at that moment have no meaning for him. In such cases, he can use context to arrive at a possible meaning and to check whether the hypothesized meaning is appropriate, as he reads further.

A third use of context is to determine the meaning and, in some cases, the pronunciation of homographs. Homographs are words with the same spelling but with different meanings. A child at a very early stage in his reading development will come across the written word *bat*, for example, and will be able to recode it and attach a number of meanings to it. He will have to determine from the context in which it appears whether he is reading about a flying mammal, a stick used to hit a ball, or the action of hitting the ball. Similarly, the word *lead*, meaning a metal, and the word *lead*, meaning to guide, are identical in print, as are the words *desert*, meaning a dry place, and *desert*, meaning to abandon. One can determine which is meant and consequently which of two possible pronunciations to give these words only by reading them within the context of a sentence or a phrase.

A fourth use of context, which also involves use of spelling contrasts, is in determining the meaning of homophones. These are words with similar pronunciation but different spelling such as *there/their* and *beat/beet.* (These are commonly called "homonyms." However, as the latter term is a general term used for both homographs and homophones, the two different terms are used here to indicate the distinction more clearly.) These words sound alike in speech. When the child begins to encounter them in print, he may confuse them. He will need much practice in reading them within context and in observing their spelling in order to derive the correct meaning.

8. **Uses grammatical structure (syntactic clues) to derive meaning**

As linguists have analyzed English grammar, they have distinguished five ways in which English sentences signal meanings: word order, intonation, use of function words, inflectional contrasts, and derivational contrasts. Children learn these signals of grammatical meaning from the time they begin to use oral language so that by the time they come to school, most children have a fairly firm mastery of the grammatical structure of English. The task of the teacher of reading then is to insure that children apply their considerable knowledge of English grammar to deriving meaning from what they read.

9. **Uses typographic clues to phrase and sentence meaning**

Typographic clues to phrase and sentence meaning include:

a) Spacing, which separates words and enables the child to see them as entities, and also signals some differences in meaning between compound words and similar phrases

b) Capital letters, which signal sentence beginnings and proper nouns

c) Punctuation marks, which are used to signal meanings in various ways

d) Variations in type size, face, and placement, which may signal emphasis or structure in a written passage

10. **Reads orally to convey meaning**

Intonation refers to the differences in pitch, stress, and juncture which are features of our speech or oral reading and with which we convey meaning. Pitch denotes the "ups and downs" of speech. In American English, there are generally distinguished four degrees of pitch: low, normal, high, and highest. There are also four degrees of stress, or accent, usually designated heavy, medium, light, and weak. It should be kept in mind that these are relative degrees or levels, not absolutes that can be exactly measured. Juncture refers to the different kinds of cuts in the stream of speech as a speaker passes from one utterance (word, phrase, or sentence) to another. Linguists recognize four kinds of juncture. All three of these features are involved in what some linguists call "the melodies of the printed page" and reading teachers call "reading with expression." In oral reading, the child should utilize punctuation marks as well as the context as cues to the intonation contours that will help convey to the listener the meaning of what he is reading.

READING SKILLS CHECKLIST

Skill	Age 5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Realizes that written words represent spoken words							
a) Recognizes familiar words in environment	▨	▨	▨				
b) Recognizes frequently used words at sight	▨	▨	▨				
2. Relates alphabetic symbols to language sounds in context							
a) Recognizes consonants and vowels as speech sounds that are combined to make spoken words	▨	▨	▨				
b) Identifies letter that represents beginning sound of a word	▨	▨	▨				
c) Identifies letter that represents beginning sound of several words	▨	▨	▨				
3. Relates letter patterns in a left-to-right sequence to corresponding patterns of language sounds (words) a) Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel-consonant/ phoneme pattern represented by: (1) CVC letters							
(a) With no initial C letter		▨	▨				
(b) With differing initial C letters		▨	▨				
(c) With differing final C letters		▨	▨				
(d) With differing medial V letters		▨	▨				
(2) CVC + *e*							
(a) With no initial C letter		▨	▨				
(b) With differing initial C letters		▨	▨				
(c) With differing final C letters		▨	▨				
(d) With differing medial V letters		▨	▨	▨			
(3) CV + doubled C letters							
(a) With no initial C letter		▨	▨				
(b) With final *-ff, -ll, -ss, -tt, -zz*		▨	▨				
(c) With final *-all, -oll, -oss, -ull*		▨	▨	▨			
(d) With final *-ck*		▨	▨				
(4) CVVC							
(a) With no initial C letter		▨	▨	▨			
(b) With no final C letter		▨	▨	▨			
(c) With initial and final C letters		▨	▨	▨			
(5) C digraphs							
(a) Initial		▨	▨	▨			
(b) Final		▨	▨	▨			
(c) C digraph + *e*				▨	▨		
b) Recodes one-syllable words with consonant clusters (1) Initial							
(a) C or C digraph + *r*		▨	▨	▨			
(b) C + *l*		▨	▨	▨			
(c) *s* + C		▨	▨	▨			
(d) *qu-, dw-, tw-, wh-*		▨	▨	▨			
(e) 3 C letters = 3 sounds			▨	▨			
(2) Final							
(a) CC		▨	▨	▨			
(b) C + C digraph			▨	▨			
(c) *-ald, -alt, -ild, -ind, -old, -ost*		▨	▨	▨			
(d) CC*e*				▨	▨		

Shaded areas indicate in a general way when skills are usually acquired by most children.

	Age						
Skill	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
c) Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel/ phoneme pattern represented by:							
(1) CV or CCV		▨	▨	▨			
(2) CV + *e* or *y*		▨	▨	▨			
d) Recodes two-syllable words ending in *y*		▨	▨				
e) Recodes words with V letter followed by *r*		▨	▨	▨			
f) Recodes words with *c* or *g* followed by *e, i,* or *y*		▨	▨	▨			
g) Recodes words with letters which represent no sound			▨	▨	▨		
h) Recodes frequently used words which do not conform to sound-spelling patterns		▨	▨	▨	▨		
4. Uses structural clues to word recognition							
a) Decodes compound words		▨	▨	▨	▨		
b) Decodes words with inflectional and derivational affixes							
(1) Noun plural inflections		▨	▨	▨			
(2) Noun possessive inflections		▨	▨	▨			
(3) Verb number and tense inflections		▨	▨	▨			
(4) Adjective and adverb comparison inflections			▨	▨			
(5) Derivational prefixes and suffixes			▨	▨	▨	▨	▨
c) Decodes contractions		▨	▨	▨			
5. Uses knowledge of one-syllable word patterns to recode words of more than one syllable							
a) Recognizes syllables in spoken words as units of language consisting of a vowel alone, a vowel preceded or followed by consonants, or a syllabic consonant		▨	▨	▨			
b) When a V letter is followed by two different C letters and a V letter (VCCV), pronounces first syllable with a short vowel			▨	▨	▨		
c) When a V letter is followed by doubled C letters, pronounces the first syllable with a short vowel followed by a single consonant sound			▨	▨	▨		
d) Uses medial C clusters as a guide to pronunciation			▨	▨	▨		
e) When a V letter is followed by a single C letter and another V letter (VCV), pronounces the first syllable as an open syllable with a glided (long) vowel or with a schwa, or as a closed syllable ending in the consonant, with an unglided (short) vowel			▨	▨	▨		
f) Pronounces medial C digraphs as single consonant sounds			▨	▨	▨		
g) When a word ends in C + *le*, uses spelling pattern as a guide to pronouncing stressed first syllable, and pronounces last syllable as consonant + /l/ or /əl/			▨	▨	▨		
h) Decodes words in which adjacent V letters represent two vowel sounds in separate syllables				▨	▨		
i) Combines pronounced syllables and adjusts pronunciation to produce a word with sounds and stress heard in normal speech			▨	▨	▨	▨	
6. Decodes abbreviations							
a) Of common titles		▨	▨				
b) Of days, months, parts of addresses, measurement terms		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨

	Age						
Skill	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
7. Uses context (semantic clues)							
a) To anticipate and verify recoding of printed words into spoken words		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨
b) To hypothesize meaning of word not in oral vocabulary			▨	▨	▨	▨	▨
c) To decode homographs		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	
d) To decode homophones			▨	▨	▨	▨	
8. Uses grammatical structure (syntactic clues) to derive meaning							
a) Uses word order clues		▨	▨	▨			
b) Uses inflectional and derivational contrasts		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨
c) Uses structure words as clues to sentence meaning							
(1) Noun determiners: articles, possessive adjectives, demonstrative adjectives, cardinal and ordinal adjectives, indefinite adjectives, interrogative adjectives		▨	▨	▨			
(2) Verb markers, or auxiliaries		▨	▨	▨			
(3) Phrase markers, or prepositions		▨	▨	▨			
(4) Question markers		▨	▨	▨	▨		
(5) Clause markers, or conjunctions			▨	▨	▨		
(6) Sentence connectors, or coordinating conjunctions		▨	▨	▨	▨		
(7) Intensifiers			▨	▨	▨		
(8) Starters			▨	▨	▨		
9. Uses typographic clues to phrase and sentence meaning							
a) Spacing as a signal of structural units		▨	▨				
b) Capital letters as signals of sentence beginnings, proper nouns		▨	▨				
c) Punctuation							
(1) Marks within words (apostrophe, hyphen)		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	
(2) End marks (period, question mark, exclamation point)		▨	▨				
(3) Internal marks (comma, semicolon, colon, dash)			▨	▨	▨		
(4) Special marks (quotation marks, parentheses)		▨	▨	▨	▨		
d) Variations in type size, face, and placement			▨	▨	▨	▨	
10. Reads orally to convey meaning							
a) Uses context to determine intonation		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨
b) Uses punctuation marks as signals of intonation contours							
(1) Reads simple statements with a normal intonation contour /231/ and primary stress on last structure in sentence		▨	▨	▨	▨		
(2) Uses normal intonation contour /231/ for questions requiring a substantive answer		▨	▨	▨	▨		
(3) Uses "question" contour /223/ for questions requiring a yes-or-no answer		▨	▨	▨	▨		
(4) Uses /3/ or /4/ pitch and moves primary stress according to context and exclamation point		▨	▨	▨	▨		
(5) Uses appropriate pause where signalled by a comma in series, around an appositive, or between clauses			▨	▨	▨	▨	▨

III. PLANNING AND ORGANIZING FOR TEACHING READING

Effective reading programs don't just happen; they are the result of systematic planning and organizing. Classrooms where students are developing skills in reading – individually and in small groups – are the result of planning based on both a sound understanding of individual students and the learning tasks which they are confronting. Classes in which *all* youngsters are working productively and creatively are the result of clear patterns of organization. This kind of planning and organizing is essential in order to provide the necessary flexibility for responding to individual strengths and needs. Without this kind of planning and organizing, a program becomes either rigid or chaotic.

The overall purpose of this chapter is to help teachers (individually and collectively) plan and organize reading programs more critically, more efficiently, and more effectively. In it are described the tasks that the teacher confronts as he plans and organizes for teaching reading. The tasks are presented here in sequential order; they are in reality, circular. Furthermore, the teacher is involved almost continually in all of these tasks, for they are highly interrelated. Implicit in all the foregoing is a thorough understanding of each child's needs predicated on a continuing assessment of those needs.

LEARNING ABOUT INDIVIDUAL STRENGTHS AND NEEDS

Individual Differences in Learning Style

An individual's learning style is made up of many components. Three of these components are discussed here. They deal with the ways in which he receives information and impressions; the way he responds to learning situations; and the way in which he typically organizes his thinking.

Sensory Orientation

We learn about our environment through our senses of sight, sound, touch, taste, and smell. School programs are geared to teach primarily through seeing and hearing. Teachers often use a combination of these. Most youngsters learn effectively through hearing. When learning tasks are approached through both sight and sound, the majority of students will learn. However, there are some children who are more highly oriented to the sense of touch. Provisions should be made for these students to feel the shapes of letters and the configurations of words. Provisions should also be made for these students to hear and see the words at the same time that they touch them – so that their senses of sight and sound are strengthened as they use their sense of touch for learning.

The teacher needs to be aware of which senses each youngster uses most effectively. He should help youngsters to use those senses for learning, and to strengthen their other senses as instruments of learning.

Of course, in reading we have to use both seeing and hearing. But an emphasis on one or the other, plus use of the sense of touch, can help us reach more individuals when we purposely gear instruction to the sensory orientation of each.

Responsive Mode

Youngsters differ from one another in their response to:

1. The kind of group they are in for various instructional purposes

2. The kind of expectation or challenge that is set for them, or which they set for themselves

3. The way in which the teacher reacts to individual youngsters

4. The instructional material or activity with which he is involved

Some youngsters learn most effectively on a one-to-one basis with the teacher. Others, by contrast, learn best in a fairly large group. Still others are more comfortable and learn best in a group of four or five or six. Some youngsters learn best through independent activities. Others need the support of their peers as they pursue new learnings. Teachers soon learn which kinds of groupings are most appropriate, and most effective, for which youngsters. Over a period of time, when children are tried in various kinds of groups, the teacher comes to understand which grouping pattern fits each youngster best.

Some youngsters respond well to challenge. This challenge may be defined by the teacher, or it may be their own plan. However, there are children who become frozen by too large a challenge. A learning task can be so overpowering to them that they don't know where to begin; and even if they knew where to begin, they would feel no hope of ever being able to complete it. These youngsters need to have learning tasks laid out in small, manageable pieces. By gradually trying larger and broader challenges, the teacher learns the size of challenge that will be most productive for each child.

Individual children react differently to teachers' ways of teaching. Some youngsters need very definite directions from the teacher. Some need less direction and greater freedom for defining their own involvement in a learning task. There are children who need a great deal of support from the teacher as they pursue an activity. There are others who want to be left alone. As the teacher begins to understand the most effective relationship between himself and the individual child, he learns to regulate his own behavior as he works with each individual, whether on a one-to-one basis or in a group setting.

Depending on their values, interests, and motivations, youngsters respond in various ways to different instructional materials and activities.

Thinking Pattern

Children differ in the ways in which they organize what they have learned. Some youngsters learn best by first gathering many facts and organizing them into a meaningful whole. Their thinking pattern is a steady, step-by-step, inductive procedure. Other youngsters learn best by quickly coming to a main idea, a generalization, and then testing it out by looking at specific bits of information to see whether or not their generalization holds. They take great chunks of information and make quick, intuitive leaps from them in their thinking. Their thinking pattern is predominantly deductive.

One pattern is not necessarily better than the other; they are just different. But if we are to plan and organize appropriately, we need to know which thinking patterns are most effective for which youngsters. The more we can learn about how to match teaching strategies, materials, and organizational patterns with children's learning styles, the more likelihood there is that efficient learning will take place in the classroom.

WAYS OF ASSESSING ACHIEVEMENT

The Reading Skills as a Basis for Assessment

Learning about a child's instructional needs in reading presumes that all teachers know what the reading skills are. An extensive effort to provide Montgomery County teachers with specific information about the reading skills is a major section of this reading bulletin. Definition of these skills, from beginning reading through the sixth grade, forms the entire second chapter. Illustrative activities for building and developing the skills defined are in Appendix A.

All MCPS teachers of reading need to acquire a thorough working knowledge of this list of reading skills as a base for determining a child's performance level and as a guide for setting immediate behavioral objectives for individual or group instruction.

Observations and Teacher Judgments

The teacher plays a crucial role in providing effective reading instruction in the classroom. Through daily observation of pupil performance, he is in a key position to promote the acquisition of reading skills and to prevent the development of major reading problems by identifying learning needs as they are manifested in the daily classroom activities. If the teacher is unable to recognize and deal with symptoms of reading difficulty as they occur, the difficulties become cumulative.

If the teacher is to prevent these other problems from becoming major reading disabilities, he needs to become an expert observer and diagnostician. This is not to say that the teacher is expected to achieve diagnostic skills overnight. On the contrary, the development of such skills will take place over a period of time. Diagnosis is not the exclusive domain of the reading specialist. It is the heart of good day-by-day instruction in the classroom. What it implies is that the teacher become a better observer of pupils in the daily activities of the classroom. Paper and pencil tests yield much data about children's performance levels, but they do not tell the teacher about the learning conditions needed to foster particular kinds of learning behavior. Teachers need feedback from the children themselves about the conditions that facilitate or impede learning. For example, the teacher needs to observe which children fail to understand and follow directions when given verbally to the group as a whole. He needs to see which children fail to follow through when the directions involve remembering three or four steps rather than a series of short tasks. He needs to note who does better when the oral directions are reinforced by visual clues such as pictures or models or charts.

These guidelines for diagnosis make use of the teacher's unique position to observe the ways in which children learn or fail to learn in specific areas. The teacher who has become familiar with the elements that go into the process of learning to read will be in a better position to define purposes in observing the children in the day-by-day classroom activities. He is then able to use these observations about particular children as the basis for modifying and adapting an instructional plan to meet the needs identified for individual pupils and for the group.

In a sense, all teaching is diagnostic. In working on a given unit, the teacher will perceive that some children have failed to achieve the desired learnings and are in need of more basic instruction or practice activities to reinforce what they have learned. However, he may not have recognized that the child's failure to master the material might be caused by his having been given a task too high or too low for his level of performance; or that the materials and techniques used in the presentation of the lesson did not take into account his best sensory channels for learning; or that they did not provide him with sufficient motivation on the basis of his interests, aptitudes, or experiential background.

Teaching becomes diagnostic in a functional sense when the following criteria have been satisfied:

1. The teacher has assessed the level at which each child is working on a sequence of learning tasks.

2. He has systematically recorded this assessment of a child's performance level.

3. He has selected teaching objectives for each child based on these determinations.

4. He has noted the sensory channels that best serve the child as he processes information.

5. He has planned appropriate sequences of work for the student.

How well the teacher is able to derive such information and follow-through in planning will determine the degree to which he is successful in developing an individualized program of reading.

Tests and Informal Reading Inventories (IRI)

What information already exists about the child that can give the teacher clues to his abilities and needs? How can the teacher make sure that each child receives the kind of reading instruction that is right for him at the right point in time? Given our present state of knowledge and technique, no teacher – no matter how good – can be sure about the right kind of reading instruction for a given child at any given time. He can, however, increase the chance of being on target by knowing what tests can and cannot do, and by learning to use the informal tests and inventories which do exist.

The teacher should know, for example, that while a pupil's folders will contain results of standardized tests used in the county to measure the pupil's reading achievement, these are most frequently of the *group* survey type. These tests are yardsticks by which school systems measure overall group performance to yield data for broad program planning and modification; but their greatest value to the teacher and administrator is their use as an initial screening measure to identify those pupils who need more intensive individual diagnosis. They are not designed to give a specific picture of a pupil's reading capabilities. The score a child achieves on these tests is the sum of his performance in a half dozen reading skills, transmitted into a grade level designation which does *not* tell the teacher where he should begin instruction. These tests are not sufficiently diagnostic in the skill areas to pinpoint an individual child's area of weakness, nor do they provide specific information for classroom planning and grouping.

For such specific information, the teacher must turn to other formal and informal diagnostic tests. Informal assessment, based on listening to a child read aloud in a conference situation from an informal reading inventory or other graded reading materials, is one of the most feasible ways for a classroom teacher to obtain specific clues concerning the approximate level of material which a child reads with ease, his particular skill needs, and any areas of difficulty. A continuing analysis of the child's performance in an informal functional reading situation should be the basis for classroom planning, grouping, and instruction. Teachers need constantly to develop and refine their informal assessment skills. To do so they may seek assistance from school-based and area-based reading specialists. They may also find useful the following reference:

> Johnson, Marjorie Seddon, and Roy A. Kress. *Informal Reading Inventories.* Reading Aids Series. Newark, Del.: International Reading Association, 1965.

A description of the various levels at which a child reads will be helpful to the teacher as he works with diagnostic tests and materials:

Independent Level. This is the highest level at which a child reads without help from the teacher. He must have a comprehension score of at least 90% on both factual and inferential questions. He should be able to pronounce 99% of all words in a story. He should display no tension symptoms such as finger movements, lip movements, and frowning.

Instructional Level.	This is the highest level at which a child can read with a small amount of help from the teacher. He pronounces correctly 95-98% of all words with a comprehension score of 75-89% on factual and inferential questions. Oral reading is characterized by a normal rhythm and freedom from tension habits.
Frustration Level.	This is the level at which a child reads with comprehension level of less than 74%. It is characterized by omissions, substitutions, hesitations, and many tension symptoms. (This level should *never* be used for instructional purposes.)
Capacity Level.	This is an understanding level which is characterized by an ability to comprehend 75% of the material read orally by the teacher.

The teacher's first series of conferences with each child should involve assessment of the child's skills and overall development. It is possible that records of the pupil's reading progress may not be included in the child's cumulative record, may be inaccurate, or may not be timely. The current year's teacher will need specific information about each child's level of ability and his needs in order to plan an appropriate reading program for him.

As indicated earlier, the score on a group reading test given at or near the close of the preceding year is often of little value to the teacher. It has little diagnostic significance, since it is largely the sum of the pupil's performance in a number of skills that have been translated into a grade level which does not indicate to the teacher the particular strengths and needs of this child. Any one of a number of informal inventories will yield information about the instructional (not frustration) level at which the teacher may begin to work, the child's level of auditory or listening comprehension, and the level at which he is reading with adequate comprehension. The teacher may wish to supplement the information revealed by the inventories with tests of other reading skills. Among these are phonic skills of knowledge of letter-sound patterns, syllables, initial blends, and the like. For help, the teacher should consult the reading teacher in his school, the area-based teacher specialist in reading or language arts, and/or the area-based reading diagnostician.

ORGANIZING FOR INSTRUCTION

Individualized reading instruction does not mean one-to-one teaching. A good reading program will provide the greatest degree of individualized instruction that is possible; but it must do so within the limits of all of the factors operating within the classroom. While the details will vary from one teacher to another, organizing for effective instruction will involve the best use of time, procedures, materials, and activities to meet the objectives the teacher has defined. The teacher must also consider the best use of the space that is available. Because effective instruction in reading involves teaching to the individual needs and pace of students, reshaping the physical space in the classroom is important. Rearranging groups of youngsters according to their tasks or interests may help the teacher become more aware of the children's specific abilities and needs. Arrangements of furniture and equipment into four or five separate areas will facilitate the teaching/learning tasks. For example, a listening post can be set up in one corner of the classroom where individual pupils or small groups can listen to a unit of work that has been recorded on tape to reinforce the learning of a needed skill.

The teacher must also consider himself a factor in how he organizes for instruction. He will not only have to learn about the individual needs and abilities of the pupils, but he will also have to become aware of how he interacts with children and how he functions best in the teaching situation. His deep respect for each child as a person is essential.

Within whatever organization the teacher evolves for himself, he must be sure to provide daily opportunities for pupils to observe, listen, speak, write, and manipulate materials. Nor can he leave to chance the unscheduled daily opportunities for skill development in all areas of the language arts. The interrelated processes of listening, speaking, reading, and writing must be the core of day-by-day organization and planning.

All effective teaching is diagnostic. As the teacher plans for each student, these critical questions must be kept in mind:

What *motivates* this child to learn?
What can he already do?
What are the channels through which he learns best?
How slowly or rapidly does he need to move through a given phase?
What kind of grouping will facilitate his learning?
In what sequence should material be presented to him?

These and other questions relating to classroom management are an ever present task to be solved in individual ways by each teacher. He will need to help children work independently both as an end in itself and as a technique for freeing him to work with individuals and small groups. He will need to evolve record-keeping techniques for each child and for the group, and to develop ways of reporting to parents on children's reading progress.

As teachers review the techniques described in the following sections, they will need to remember that these ideas and practices are not specifically designed to teach reading skills. They are general classroom management techniques and often tend more to foster comprehension and the enjoyment of literature.

Grouping Students

We have too often engaged in the debate about what kinds of grouping are best; or the question of which is better: homogeneous or heterogeneous grouping. A far more productive approach is to look at grouping as one of the tools (or variables) which the teacher has available to him. The question to be asked is: What purposes can each kind of grouping serve?

Individual conference and instruction is one way of organizing for teaching to individual differences in reading. At various times, teachers should work with individuals. One obvious advantage is the closeness of relationship that is available between the child and teacher. There is the added advantage that the teacher can work directly with the child on a learning task that is specifically his and that may be very personal to him.

The disadvantage to working on a one-to-one basis is the fact that all the other children in the group must simultaneously be productively involved in tasks that are meaningful to them; otherwise, they are apt to interrupt and make the experience unpleasant and unproductive for both the teacher and the individual child involved. Managing this kind of productivity requires considerable skill on the part of the teacher.

Another disadvantage of working on a one-to-one basis is that it places great demands on the teacher's time. Working with each student individually is time consuming. Children who are required to work independently for long periods of time may resent the teacher's spending so much time with another individual.

Many teachers assume that teaching to individual differences (individualized instruction) requires the teacher to work on a one-to-one basis. This, however, is not the only way of working in an individualized program. There are many ways in which meaningful groups can be organized.

Small groups can be organized in many ways and for various purposes. The group may work with or without the teacher. The important thing to keep in mind is that these youngsters have been brought together for a purpose and because of certain characteristics or learning needs.

Most youngsters respond well to small group activities and learning experiences. Teachers usually find this an effective way of teaching to individual differences.

Skills in organizing and managing instructional situations are required of the teacher. And, in order to keep groups meaningful, the organization and reorganization of groups becomes a fluid, ever-changing task.

Large group organization can be used effectively in teaching for short periods of time. An advantage here lies in the fact that the total group and the teacher are focussed together on one learning task.

Large group instruction can be used when all the children are being first introduced to a learning task, new material, skill, or idea.

Homogeneous grouping is a term that carries with it a certain degree of controversy. In order to make our meaning clear, two points are stressed:

1. A group of children can be homogeneous in terms of only one characteristic at a given time. A homogeneous group, in our definition, is one in which, for example, all the children are now reading to learn certain diphthongs.

2. Over a period of time, children will learn at various rates. Therefore, the group will not remain homogeneous for long.

Homogeneous grouping is most economical in those situations when youngsters have a common need. Forming effective groups requires accurate diagnosis on the part of the teacher. In addition, groups must be disbanded and reorganized when their usefulness has been outworn.

Organizing the Classroom

The elementary school classroom should be organized so that children have daily opportunities to observe, manipulate, listen, speak, read, and write. In the reading period, there should be a regular time for skill development, either individually or in groups; for pupil-teacher conferences; for enrichment activities; and for sharing of experiences, ideas, books, and children's writing.

Independent Activities

Work experiences which the children can carry on with a minimum of teacher direction not only free the teacher to work with individual children or groups, but have inherent value in themselves. To the extent that children learn during independent work activities to manage their time effectively, prepare for a reading assignment, make decisions, work with others, and develop good study habits and needed skills, they are learning to be responsible for themselves and good members of a working group. Such learning opportunities will not come about spontaneously, but are the result of continuous and careful planning on the part of the teacher.

Organizing for independent work activities is not a simple task; but the rewards of careful, consistent planning are evident in the day-by-day achievement of children and the purposeful, orderly, and creative climate of the classroom. Some teachers use this independent worktime as a skill-building period with opportunities for practice and reinforcement in spelling, handwriting, comprehension, word recognition and phonic skills, or expanding vocabulary. Others vary the activities and include opportunities for creative writing, art, research reading for preparation of reports, or exploring interests in content areas like science and social studies. All these involve reading. In a well-managed program, the children work at a variety of tasks related to the total skills of the language arts, including reading. These tasks are purposeful and specific to their needs at that point as determined by teacher and child through planned conferences or other classroom arrangements.

Jeannette Veatch emphasizes that independent activities must not be assignments that merely fill in time and are unrelated to the teaching objectives developed for each child.[1] Such activities are lost opportunities for learning and a misuse of children's time. Independent activities are "open ended tasks" that do not begin and end at the same time, but have a flexibility that enables each child to work at his own pace. They are constructed to encourage children to inquire, explore, and learn on their own.

Veatch suggests that a productive sequence of independent activities could involve:

1. Silent reading of self-chosen books [on independent reading level]
2. Preparation of a portion of what is being read for a conference with the teacher or for presentation to a group, another individual, or the entire class
3. Getting information for a project in a related area such as science or social studies
4. Exploring a particular interest
5. Creative writing of stories, poems, diaries, logs, reports, letters, or books that grow out of the pupil's reading or other activities
6. Working on tasks assigned by the teacher for skill development or for the reinforcement of skills learned[2]

Learning Centers

A departure in recent years from the traditional arrangement of a class in rows of desks has been the increased use of learning centers. Such centers are found particularly in classes where trade books and pupil-written books are the primary materials of reading instruction. They may be used, however, with any type of reading instruction.

Traditionally, classrooms have had interest centers where children could go voluntarily after completing their assigned tasks. More recently, the classroom has been organized so that learning centers are the areas where the major learning activities take place; and children spend all or most of the school day moving to the various centers to perform assigned tasks which cover all of the curriculum areas. This kind of center may be established for an entire school year for a particular curriculum area, with frequent introduction of new materials and assignments. Centers related to language and reading might include a Reading Center, a Reporting Center, an Art Center, and a Speaking-Listening Center. The important idea to remember here is to relate center activity to the acquisition, reinforcement, or practice of reading skills. Centers can have many learning focuses; but if they are to help pupils acquire reading skills, then they must be organized with this specifically in mind.

---

[1] Jeannette Veatch, *Reading in the Elementary School* (New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1966), pp. 61-63.
[2] *Ibid.*, p. 65.

1. Reading Center

This may consist of a table and chairs, and if possible, a rug. If trade books are the chief instructional materials, they will be displayed here for children to browse and make selections. Books written and bound by children may be displayed, so that children can read each other's writing. If basal readers are the main instructional tool, the reading center can be a place to go for library books, paperbacks, and magazines that extend and enrich reading experiences. Reading at the center is mostly silent, but at times children may wish to share portions of books or illustrations. Some children will always prefer to take their books from the center to other parts of the room.

2. Reporting Center

At this center, there may be a chart of suggestions or examples of various ways children can report on books. A wide variety of art materials – yarn, paint, construction paper, cloth, and materials brought from home – will help stimulate children's thinking about interesting and unusual ways to share books. A chart may be posted on which children write their names and indicate when and how they plan to report on a particular book.

3. Art Center

If reading instruction is built around the use of pupil-written materials, this may be a place where children illustrate their stories, make dioramas or posters "advertising" books they have written, or paint pictures about which they will dictate a story. Again, a variety of materials should be available to stimulate creativity.

4. Speaking-Listening Center

At this center, some type of tape recorder, a record player, and a listening station would be useful. Listening stations are available for purchase as audio-visual equipment and are listed in the current MCPS audio-visual bid list. Personnel from the Department of Educational Media and Technology will go to schools and help set up such centers.

Children may be encouraged to do creative storytelling to small groups, or to tape a story for future sharing. A group may listen as a child reads his story, then discuss it and make suggestions. Tapes of stories already written by children may be available for listening; they stimulate the creation of more stories. A group of children who have read the same book may gather here to discuss it, tape a selection from it, or plan a play or pantomime based on it. A child may wish to tape his reaction to a book and his recommendations to others who might be interested in reading it. A selection of records (music, fiction, poetry) extends opportunities for listening experiences.

Before children go to the various learning centers, it is useful to hold planning sessions with the class as a whole. Class discussion will yield ideas that the teacher can pursue to spark children's interest in reading. The class as a whole can also share the plays, puppet shows, or other things that groups and individuals have prepared at the centers.

The importance of careful planning of the center activities with the children cannot be too strongly stressed. Unless children know exactly what each center is for and how they are to behave there, chaos may result. When a teacher and/or the children are inexperienced in the use of centers, it is recommended that the teacher proceed slowly in introducing this type of classroom organization. He could start with one center and with a small group of children, then gradually expand both the number of centers and the number of children involved as they demonstrate their responsibility and ability to handle this type of organizing for reading activities. Some useful suggestions for setting up and using learning centers may be found in Veatch, *Reading in the Elementary School,* pp. 78-116; and in Allen, *Language Experiences in Reading.* Other sources are:

> *Independent Learning . . . in the Elementary Classroom.* Lois E. Williams. (A study/action publication from the American Association of Elementary-Kindergarten—Nursery Educators, NEA.)
>
> *Learning Centers: Children on their Own.* edited by Virginia Rapport. The Association for Childhood Education International.

Teacher-Pupil Conferences

An individualized instruction program in reading should provide for regular teacher-pupil conferences on a one-to-one basis. Such conferences may have a number of purposes. They enable the teacher to establish rapport with the child and learn about his interests, concerns, and ambitions. Talking with an adult on a one-to-one basis helps the child to develop listening and speaking skills. The teacher may use the conference to assess the child's oral language facility and to determine his specific skill needs. The conference time may also be used for informal testing if the classroom situation is such that this can be done comfortably without creating anxiety in the child.

Individual conferences may have somewhat different characteristics depending on what kinds of materials the teacher is using as the primary tools of reading instruction. When child-written materials are used primarily in a "language experience" situation, the teacher may use the conference to take dictation from the child, or to listen to a story he has written. When the individualized instruction utilizes trade books primarily, the teacher may use the conference to determine what books the child enjoys or does not enjoy, and why; to check the child's comprehension through questioning; to check his understanding of vocabulary and particular shades of meaning encountered in the particular book; or to discuss the next book he will choose. Conferences are equally useful when instruction is organized around the basal reader. They may enable the teacher to learn the children's interests, reading habits, and learning styles; to discuss with children their particular skill needs; to give encouragement; and to help develop favorable attitudes toward reading.

Teacher-pupil conferences may be initiated by either the teacher or the pupil. Some teachers schedule conferences regularly, writing on the board each morning the names of children who will have an opportunity for a conference that day. Other teachers encourage pupils to come voluntarily to request a conference when they feel ready, scheduling a child arbitrarily only when he has shown reluctance to volunteer at all.

Since the conference is intended to be a useful procedure for gaining insight about the child, the teacher should guard against letting it become a meaningless routine. Rather, the teacher should consider the conference as a tool to be adapted to meet individual needs by variation in duration, frequency, the kinds of questions asked, the amount of attention given to each individual, and the degree of ego-building encouragement needed.

Above all, it is essential that in the teacher-pupil conference, the child should feel comfortable, should feel that his privacy is being protected, and should feel confidence in the teacher to the point at which he can speak frankly of his concerns about himself and his reading.

Useful sources of information on teacher-pupil conferences are:

> Heilman, Arthur W. *Principles and Practices of Teaching Reading,* Second Edition, Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1967, Chapter 11.
>
> Veatch, Jeannette. *Reading in the Elementary School.* New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1966, Chapters 4 and 6.

CHOOSING INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS TO MEET INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

There is a wide and varied range of instructional materials that teachers can use to help youngsters acquire the skills of reading. Our purpose here is not to list all materials that have been approved by Review and Evaluation. Rather, our purpose is to describe some large categories under which various materials can be classified. Much more specific and detailed analysis of the varieties of commercially available reading series and approaches is being developed by the builders of the curriculum bank in reading. Meanwhile, this bulletin gives some clues about which categories might be most useful to certain students and in certain situations.

Making the match between a youngster and the most effective instructional materials for him is a responsibility of the teacher. The following guidelines are suggested to help the teacher meet that responsibility. The curriculum bank in reading focuses on the choices a faculty or an area needs to make in order to support the teacher and to assure their share of the overall school system responsibility for the reading program.

Basal Readers

Basal readers are the most widely known instructional materials for teaching reading. They are designed to present a sequential program of reading instruction in such specific skills as word recognition, vocabulary development, and comprehension. Basal readers are characterized by the use of a controlled and systematically introduced vocabulary. For the teacher – particularly the new teacher – the advantage of using a basal series is that in it are defined the reading skills he will need to teach. These skills are defined within either a phonics-related or a linguistic framework.

The basal readers are usually accompanied by workbooks or practice books, teacher manuals, prereading activities, comprehension checks, or other aids. Sometimes co-basal texts are published to complement the regular series. When used selectively, the activities in the practice books provide constructive help for children who need reinforcement in a particular reading skill area. This implies that the teacher must be constantly alert to the learning strengths and needs of each child, and that he should utilize only that portion of the workbook activity needed to teach the skill on which the child is working. Few children will need to do every page of every workbook in a series.

41

When basal readers are used for reading instruction, the teacher selects the child's reading book on the basis of a reading level determined by informal tests, achievement tests, observation, and teacher judgment. Three to four reading groups may be formed, with approximately eight to ten pupils each. Some teachers may organize independent reading groups for children who can handle an additional book with the assistance of an aide or a pupil leader under the direction of the teacher. Some children may read independently rather than in a group. In any case, comprehension should be checked.

Basal reader series usually consist of readiness materials, several preprimers and primers, and one or two or more texts for each grade level. Different basal series structure the teaching of reading skills differently.

Faculties and principals wishing to use basal readers as part of their reading program should, before selecting any series, determine from the current Textbook List which are recommended as basal texts (B) as opposed to those which are supplementary (S).

It is suggested that teachers use the Directed Reading-Thinking Activity process (DRTA) in working with groups, rather than the more restricted Directed Reading Activity (DRA) model that is offered in most basal series. The following steps may be included in this procedure:

1. Identifying purposes for reading
    a) Individual pupil purposes
    b) Group purposes

2. Adjusting rate of reading to declared purposes and to nature and difficulty of material
    a) Survey — to overview a selection or text
    b) Skim — to read swiftly and lightly for single points
    c) Scan — to read carefully from point to point
    d) Read critically — to read, reread, and reflect so as to pass judgment

3. Developing comprehension
    a) Checking on individual and group purposes
    b) Staying with or redefining purposes
    c) Recognizing the need for other source material
    d) Developing concepts

4. Fundamental skill training activities — discussion, further reading, additional study, writing

While the teacher works with individual children or groups, those youngsters who are not working with the teacher should have the opportunity to carry on independent learning activities. Examples of such learning activities may be found in the various basal reader manuals. Some children may need to be helped to develop independence in carrying out the practice activities. For some, the teacher will need to cut and mount sections of the practice page before presenting the tasks to the children, or make transparencies for use with the overhead projector. In these ways, workbook activities become directed learning activites which the child performs under the teacher's supervision. Follow-up activities provide opportunities to use the skills previously taught as well as to develop language skills through dramatization, creative writing, and storytelling. A variety of library books and magazines provides for enrichment reading.

A serious criticism of the use of the basal reader has been that some teachers tend to form three reading groups based on three different "ability levels" and then keep these three groups static throughout the entire year. Adequate provision cannot be made, in this three-group pattern, for individual differences and for varying rates of progress. It may be that children are being made to fit the group, rather than that the instructional program is being tailored to the needs of the children. The teacher who uses basal readers as the primary instructional materials should evaluate his class organization *continually* to insure that it has not fallen into a pattern of inflexible and automatic grouping. Rather than grouping on the basis of ability alone, other criteria for grouping children should also be considered. Such criteria could include a child's interests, his need for particular skills, reading in content areas, and the need for challenge.

There are other limitations inherent in the use of the basal readers. Some series fail to relate content to the typical experiences of the majority of the children, particularly those who come from disadvantaged environments. Newer materials, however, now include stories and pictures relating to more than one ethnic and racial group. Many of the newer series have also overcome the use of too restricted a vocabulary. Nevertheless, teachers often have to supply the additional motivation that the materials themselves may not provide.

The structure of the basal series does not always allow for the individual ways in which children learn. The teacher must determine whether specific children can learn from visually oriented materials, or whether their sensory modes require that instruction emphasize auditory channels. As teachers gain familiarity with the basal materials, they will be better able to utilize commercial materials that are not tied to a particular basal series, so that practice activities become relevant to a particular child's needs. The reading teacher, the language arts or reading teacher specialist, and the librarian are all excellent resources to the teacher in selecting and adapting these generally useful materials.

The basal readers will be preferred by many teachers, both those who are as yet inexperienced and those who prefer more structured material than is afforded by library or trade books and child-written materials. When used appropriately, the basal readers provide an effective approach for many teachers and children.

Programmed Readers

Programmed readers are a relatively new type of instructional material for teaching reading. They are like basal readers in that the vocabulary used in them is highly controlled and systematically introduced. Specific skills are tightly sequenced. Programmed readers differ from basal readers most markedly in the size of the learning task presented. They present learning tasks in small, definitive units. Each new word or each new skill is introduced and highlighted so that the child can focus on mastering it in small steps. He is given an immediate opportunity to use the new word or skill; and since he is required to check his answer as a built-in step in the procedure, he knows immediately whether or not he has used it appropriately. He gets "instant" feedback since he monitors his own work step by step. Repeated practice is provided; and since each student works by himself, he proceeds at his own pace.

Programmed readers are most appropriate for youngsters whose learning pace is steady but even and whose thinking pattern is an inductive, step-by-step process. It is probably most *in*appropriate for youngsters whose thinking pace is rapid and deductive. Many respond to the immediate reinforcement that is built into programmed readers. Others find this time consuming and bothersome. Many children like the tangible evidence of accomplishment that they get from counting the pages, or exercises, or books they have completed. They also like the security of knowing which pages, or exercises, or books they are to do next. Other youngsters do not derive their basic satisfactions from numbers of things completed, but are stimulated and motivated in other ways.

Not all programmed instructional material is in book form. Some materials being developed use sound alone, or combine sound and sight. For example, one such series consists of a set of forty tapes which teach reading skills from readiness to third grade level. Each tape has an accompanying four-page work sheet. The tapes tell stories and ask children to perform the same types of tasks as are found in traditional reading workbooks. Children may work more independently with programmed materials. Teacher *guidance* will, of course, still be needed. As many children as can be plugged into the listening station can work at developing the needed skill at the same time. At other levels, a child can listen to stories and answer comprehension questions in his workbook. The tape tells him whether his response is correct.

This type of activity is intended as a supplement to the teacher's instructional program and is helpful in skill development for some children. It can be of great help in remedial instruction. Teachers may develop their own programmed materials, using a tape recorder and sets of printed materials in order to provide needed practice activities for individuals or groups of children.

Viewed as a means of increasing opportunities for individual children to work at their own pace and in their own mode as the teacher plans for skill development, programmed materials are a valuable supplementary tool.

Language Experience Materials

Language experience materials are those which children write for themselves or dictate for someone else to write down for them. These materials have a structure which is the child's own. When a teacher uses children's writing to teach reading, he is utilizing the unique language personality and background of the learner. The child's personal and home language is preserved. At the same time, he is encouraged to develop standard language understandings and skills that will help him communicate with others beyond his own family and peer group. In the language experience approach, there is daily recognition of the worth of each child's contribution. No matter how limited, his thinking is recorded; and he is encouraged to grow in the expression of his ideas, especially in oral language. His speech is recorded in written form by himself or by the teacher and can be read by himself and others. Typically, the children describe experiences they have had, and the teacher records these experiences on charts or the chalkboard. The children learn that the written symbols stand for the words they have communicated.

The language experience approach is often employed in the initial stages of teaching children to read. In the early phases of this approach, listening and speaking are employed. Later, writing and reading are integrated to form a meaningful whole in the total language development process. In this way, reading and other communication skills are interrelated in the instructional program.

Materials written by children may be used at any stage of reading instruction, ranging through prereading activities and beginning recording to advanced reading. They may be used with any age group. Such materials may include charts, poems, stories, or logs. Children may wish to develop in language the thoughts they have expressed in paintings or other art forms. As children have daily opportunities to express and record their own thoughts and experiences and to see and hear the thoughts and experiences of their classmates, the link between language and reading is strengthened.

Children learn to read by watching the teacher record their stories. It may be a story to which the whole group will contribute. It may be a story which only one child dictates, while others watch. Thus, although they are not participating in the dictating, they *are* participating in the important activity of watching the representation of oral language in writing. As the teacher writes, he may call attention to letter formation, to the relation of beginning sounds of words to beginning letters of written words, to the repetition of a particular sound and the written symbol which represents it, to capitalization and punctuation, or to sentence formation. Phonics becomes integrated into the daily program as children perceive the relationship between the sounds they make in talking about their experience and the symbols used to represent the sounds in writing. Later, children will have an opportunity to read back to the teacher or to the class what they have dictated. From dictation, they will progress to writing their own stories and sharing them with the teacher or the class when appropriate. *Such sharing should be voluntary, never forced.* Since children have frequent opportunities to read their own writing to the class or to small groups, motivation is provided for improving vocabulary and usage.

These instructional reading materials may consist primarily of stories dictated or written by the child himself, or they may include stories written by other children. With five- and six-year-olds who have not yet learned to write, the story or chart will be produced by dictation to the teacher, to an aide, or to an older student who comes in from another classroom to help with reading. Dictation is also useful for older children who have not sufficiently developed their own writing skills. Having a typewriter in the classroom on which the dictation can be recorded is a strong incentive for older children to learn to read and to type their own stories.

Child-composed materials may be motivated in a number of ways. Subjects for stories may come from children's experiences, from stimulating films and TV programs, or from class discussions. They may be suggested by a field trip or a visitor to the school. Many teachers have successfully inspired children to write by providing small booklets consisting of several blank sheets stapled together inside a construction paper cover, sometimes cut in a familiar shape such as a car or an animal. Each child selects a booklet whose color or shape appeals to him and writes his story in it. Using children's writing for instructional purposes has great intrinsic motivation. Children are interested in reading what they themselves have written, or what their friends have written about themselves. They are stimulated by the ideas of other children in the class, and new interests are developed and fostered. Self-concept is enhanced by the feeling the child gets from recognition of his authorship, and by the opportunities afforded for "publishing" his work that are part of a language experience program.

Although reading instruction that utilizes children's language materials allows children to proceed at their own pace and is non-graded in the sense that the materials are produced by the child at his own level, the teacher will have to do careful planning to use this method effectively. The vocabulary in children's writing is controlled only by the child's speaking vocabulary, since children use the words at their command that express their ideas. They do not systematically include new words in their stories in the way that a basal series or programmed reader would. Nor are the reading skills introduced systematically or sequentially. To use such a system effectively will require understanding and skill on the part of the teacher. The teacher needs to so organize the teaching of reading skills himself that each child is able to progress through the skills and eventually can demonstrate a mastery of these processes.

Library Books and Textbooks

Library books and textbooks are essential to some phases of the reading program. All children need to have rich and happy experiences with good stories and need to learn the joys of reading and sharing library books. At the same time, children need to learn ways of using their reading skills to gain information from textbooks.

Teachers must use library books and textbooks for certain reading skills. They may use these books as the predominant instructional materials for teaching reading skills to some youngsters, or to most youngsters.

When library books are used as the basis for reading instruction, each pupil chooses his own reading book with guidance from the teacher. Thus, each learner may have a different book and read at his own pace. One of the main advantages of using library books as the chief instructional material is the flexibility it allows in providing for children's varying interests. In contrast to the use of the basal reader for reading instruction, in which the first step in the guided reading lesson is the motivation of the pupil to read the selection, the use of library books provides a built-in motivation. When a child has made the selections himself, or the teacher has guided the selection in response to a known interest of the learner, he is likely to need little additional motivation.

The use of library books requires that a wide variety of reading materials be provided in the classroom. The range of difficulty and variety of subject matter should be as extensive as possible to meet the needs and interests of every child in the class. The assortment may include library books, magazines, textbooks, and reference books. Three to six books per student, with a range of difficulty at least two to three years below and above grade level, should be available. Standardized and informal tests and teacher judgment may indicate the range of reading abilities. Interest inventories may be used as a guide to subject matter selection. Committees of pupils may be appointed by the teacher to assist in the selection of books for the classroom. The school's instructional materials center affords a further resource for students whose interests, needs, and skills require materials beyond those available in the classroom; and the aid of the instructional materials specialist may be enlisted in guiding and enlarging the choices made by the children.

The teacher may introduce the use of library books in the reading program in several ways. He may start with one small group or with one child and gradually include others; or he may explain the process to the whole class and start the entire class at one time. In introducing the use of library books as instructional materials – whether to the whole class, [illegible] group, or a child – the teacher should plan a discussion of the self-selection process, a description o[illegible]s available, and an explanation of how he will group children with similar needs for skill development. The nature and purposes of teacher-pupil conferences should also be explained.

Once the program is under way, the teacher must provide continuous guidance in the choice of books so that the children will read from a stimulating and balanced selection. He must also plan for the sequential development of the reading skills, structuring the daily activities for skill development into the instructional program, since the materials themselves, unlike the basal reader materials, will not contain the structure. The teacher must define and integrate into the program of instruction those daily practice activities needed to reinforce the sequential development of the reading skills for individual children as he continues to identify and check these needs.

The teacher must provide opportunities to talk with each child daily, and to listen to him read, either individually, or as part of an appropriate group. This pupil-teacher conference time is a vital part of the reading program when self-selected library books are used as the basis for reading instruction.

SUMMARY

Every youngster must be insured the opportunity to develop all of the reading skills. The skills necessary for reading English are defined and described in this bulletin. *A major point in the MCPS reading program is that there is no one best way of teaching reading skills.* The staff of a school as well as individual teachers have responsibilities for selecting appropriate instructional materials and organizing to meet the strengths and needs of individual students. This means that each school should have available a basal series, some programmed materials, many library books, and language experience materials. Every teacher should, in turn, extend his skills in working with these various materials and in organizing different ways of using them. This kind of planning and organizing is basic to a productive and enriching reading program for all students.

IV. RESOURCES

WHERE CAN I TURN FOR HELP?

There are numerous sources of help available to the interested, industrious, and resourceful MCPS teacher. Each source is a potential solution to a host of problems; none should be overlooked nor pushed aside when seeking other people with whom to work in solving a problem or when trying to learn more about how children learn to read.

CONSIDER WHAT YOU CAN DO TO HELP YOURSELF.

(Remember the old saying, "The most underdeveloped territory in the world may lie under your own hat.")

1. Take the initiative to seek out some of the sources of help and information listed in this chapter.

2. Review textbooks and lecture notes from recent courses. They often make more sense when you have an immediate problem at hand to solve.

3. Read the *Superintendent's Bulletin* and other informational literature that comes to your school. Note the workshops, special meetings, and courses that are being offered in your administrative area and throughout the county both during the school year and in summer months.

4. Check carefully to see that you have all the manuals and support materials that may come with basic materials you are using. Most instructional materials include or are accompanied by a skills chart, a manual of teaching suggestions, and other descriptive material relating to classroom organization and scheduling.

5. Read and study your MCPS curriculum guides and bulletins. Refer to them regularly. Your principal will assist you in obtaining needed copies. (A section which is included at the close of this chapter outlines some of the questions teachers often ask and indicates where pertinent information may be found in existing MCPS curriculum documents.)

   Each teacher should have a personal copy of the following curriculum materials:

   a) *The Program of Studies* (current edition) is updated periodically as a resource document to enable both the school system's staff and citizens of the county to see how each discipline is developed as a continuing program from the kindergarten level through grade 12. The *Program of Studies* answers administrative questions relating to such matters as course titles, credit, and diploma requirements. A separate section entitled "Language Arts" outlines the overall curriculum framework for the reading and language program K-12 and lists the courses of study and curriculum guides that are recommended for use by each teacher.

   b) *Evaluative Criteria for the Elementary School Program* (first edition, 1967) delineates dimensions of quality in some key aspects of the elementary school, thereby enabling a school to evaluate the degree to which it meets the evaluative criteria outlined in the bulletin. A special section on "English Language Arts" is included.

c) *English Language Arts Program K-12* (Bulletin No. 185, Part I Elementary) contains the overall K-12 curriculum design for English Language Arts. Three other major sections consider **Language, Literature, and Composition**, the three organizing elements of the curriculum. For each of these elements, the curriculum design and important concepts and generalizations are detailed to guide the teacher in program development. In the **Literature** section, illustrative grade level units are provided to assist the teacher in planning the literature program. Other related helps are provided in each section, and the loose-leaf format of the entire bulletin has been designed to permit easy expansion and revision of material. (Bulletin No. 180, *Writing in the Elementary School* should be used in coordination with Bulletin No. 185. All other bulletins outlined in this section complement the material contained in Bulletin No. 185.)

d) *The Language Arts* (1956), A Curriculum Guide for Elementary Schools, presents a program of instruction in the four facets of the language arts – Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing. The section on Reading is followed by chapters on Literature and Use of the Library. Writing includes Written Expression, Spelling, and Handwriting. In each of these sections, the reader will find a discussion of the MCPS point of view, suggestions for developing skills, sample lessons, expected outcomes by grades, and a blueprint for evaluation of progress.

e) *Writing in the Elementary School* (Bulletin No. 180) 1964, considers the following types of writing: Notetaking; summaries; outlines; reports and records; letters; personal accounts, impressions, and descriptions; stories; poetic fragments and poems; and book reports and school newspapers. Within each of these categories, the bulletin attempts to show activities at levels of increasing difficulty. Illustrative samples of children's work are offered to illustrate the type of writing under consideration; to motivate teachers to develop a collection of compositions indicative of reasonable expectations; and to encourage the collection of samples of children's work for diagnosis and teaching purposes.

f) *Spelling Handbook for Montgomery County Public Schools K-12* (Bulletin No. 181, 1965) (Revised 1971), is designed to aid teachers and principals in planning a school's spelling program. Discussions center around learning about spelling and selecting promising practices for classrooms. This handbook contains many ready references and checklists for teachers to use and is useful in guiding staff study of the spelling program. This is a K-12 document which outlines the sound-letter relationships that are essential for learning to read and spell the English language.

g) *. . . And All This IS Reading* (No. 203 Primary Reading Handbook 1967). This is a compilation of anecdotes from MCPS classroom situations in listening, speaking, reading and composing. This bulletin was originally designed as a guide for group study of the reading process. It serves to help the teacher search for better techniques and methods to facilitate learning by focusing on the individual child and his unique capabilities. The teacher is guided by a series of annotations in the margins of the book which aid him to understand each child. Certain chapters focus on being sensitive to the clues children give about their particular patterns of learning to read. The importance of the teacher's role as an observer and facilitator is stressed. Several appendices are provided to suggest specific activities and related references.

h) *Reading Skills and Behavioral Outcomes* (Scope and Sequence Chart) K-12. This tentative chart illustrates the kinds of behavioral outcomes in reading development which are expected as each child moves at his own rate through the reading program from kindergarten to graduation from high school. The chart can still be used as a supplementary resource for the teacher although *Teaching Reading Skills* has been specifically designed to update the thinking and organization represented in the *Tentative Scope and Sequence Chart.* (It should be noted that *Teaching Reading Skills* stresses mainly those skills pertaining to learning to read and does not attempt to address itself in its present form to the more sophisticated reading skills demanded of mature readers.)

i) *Language Arts Mini Reports*
These single-fold, four-page reports are issued periodically to all teachers as interesting, thought-provoking material on issues related to the language arts. Topics vary widely (handwriting, individualized learning, getting main ideas, etc.) Past copies should be available from other teachers or your school's IMC. Teachers are requested to save for future reference those issues they receive. Reports are designed for both group and individual study.

Each school has other useful documents. Borrow and study the following:

a) *Handbook for Pupil and Program Appraisal* (1968-1969) defines practical guidelines for facilitating the understanding and involvement of teachers, specialists, and administrators in developing a systematic evaluation program within each school. Four major sections outline the general framework for both county-wide and school-based pupil and program appraisal. Each of these four sections is then subdivided into five parts which delineate the rationale, techniques, outcomes, process, and plan of action for each feature of a total system of assessment. A section which details the types of standardized tests obtainable from the Department of Pupil and Program Appraisal is included.

b) *Curriculum Design – Institutional Level* (1968) contains the overall county curriculum designs K-12 in the various disciplines. This document serves as a good guide for understanding how the MCPS curriculum has been conceptualized. A special section on English Language Arts is included.

c) *Speaking Skills: A K-12 Scope and Sequence Chart.* Currently in the pilot state, this informative chart outlines K-12 expectations in the various component behaviors encompassed in being able to speak well. Specific activities keyed to each behavior are offered in the appendix. Useful in relation to other reading guides and bulletins, it is presently available as a reference item in the IMC of each school.

d) *Guidelines for the Use of Volunteers in the Montgomery County Public Schools* (March 1970). Drawing on the experience of principals, teachers, students, and volunteers, this report includes suggested procedures that will encourage schools to recruit and use volunteers imaginatively and constructively in K-12 programs. Practical suggestions and guidelines are included.

e) *Learning Outside the School – A Guide to Community Resources* (Spring 1968). This is an alphabetical file of community resources designed as a tool to help teachers find and use resources within the community which will complement the school curriculum.

f) *Analysis of Instructional Media Used in Project FOCUS, ESEA, Title III.* (Spring 1970) This is an annotated bibliography of professional materials, test items, equipment, audio-visual materials, books, and other instructional materials together with charts showing the learning areas in which they are applicable. The lists include materials which are both commercially produced and teacher-developed within the Project.

g) *Specific Learning Disabilities Handbook*, Bulletin No. 236 (1970) (Supplement also available). This bulletin has been designed to help teachers of children with specific learning disabilities identify the special needs of these children. It serves as a guide to the teacher in establishing appropriate educational goals and using techniques and methodology needed to make realistic provisions for individual differences. The book contains sections on Language Development, Mathematics, Social Studies and Science, Perceptual Skill Training, and Motor Development.

h) *Some Suggestions for the Development of Sensory and Language Skills at the Kindergarten and Primary Levels* (April 1970). This handbook is concerned with suggestions for sensory, motor, and language development in the early primary grades. The activities listed are included to:

(1) Clarify the specific skills to be developed
(2) Offer some sequence for their development
(3) Serve as a diagnostic instrument for identifying strengths and disabilities
(4) Provide some materials and techniques that may meet individual needs
(5) Serve as a springboard for teacher creativity

i) *492 Ways to Use the Newspaper* (issued in 1971). Here are found practical teaching ideas for social studies and the language arts, based on the use of newspapers. The booklet suggests many situations for functional and practical reading.

j) Various bibliographic resources from the Department of Educational Media and Technology (issued periodically)

(1) *Approved Textbooks and Text Materials for Elementary Schools* (1971-71). All text materials contained in the Textbook List have been chosen by review and evaluation committees which are comprised of teachers, instructional materials specialists, and the appropriate subject supervisors. All materials pertaining to an approved textbook are automatically approved for purchase. All textbooks and related instructional materials are to be ordered from the Textbook Depository of the Division of Supply Management and *not* directly from publishers or vendors.

(2) *Instructional Materials for Elementary Schools* (February, 1971). This lists a wide variety of nonprint media recently evaluated by Montgomery County Public Schools

(3) Bibliographies prepared by committees of instructional materials specialists, coordinated by the Review and Evaluation Division of the Department of Educational Media and Technology

(4) *Holiday Parade* (Spring, 1970). This is an annotated multi-media list of holiday materials for elementary and secondary schools. These materials fall into three categories: academic, festive, and religious.

(5) *Negroes in American Life* (Fall, 1968).

(6) *Negroes in American Life, Supplement* (Fall, 1969). Nos. (5) and (6) are annotated bibliographies of books pertinent to the Negro in America compiled for elementary schools.

USE THE SERVICES THAT ARE AVAILABLE IN YOUR SCHOOL.

1. Talk with other teachers about concerns or needs you may have. Arrange with your principal for visits to other classrooms in your school (and in other schools).

2. Learn from your principal about the arrangements your school may have established for developing cooperative teaching programs for those children who have specialized learning needs.

3. Discuss with the reading teacher or the area-based teacher specialists in language arts or reading the administering of appropriate reading tests and the evaluating of results.

4. Consult with staff members in your school who have differentiated responsibilities and abilities (the reading teacher, a special education teacher, a Project FOCUS teacher, a catch-up teacher, a speech and hearing therapist, the school nurse). Such people often can arrange time to offer you help and suggestions.

5. Engage in study groups with other faculty members studying similar topics. Work with your principal and other members of your school's leadership team in understanding how your school operates cooperatively to identify, study, and solve the reading and learning needs of students.

6. Consult the school records: the permanent record card, the files of previous tests, the health records, and confidential reports. Many schools keep ongoing records of helpful suggestions for teaching children who are having reading difficulties; they may detail ideas that have proved successful. Consult the reading records that your school may keep on individuals.

7. Borrow materials from other teachers for temporary use. Know what materials are available in the centralized resource room that your school may have.

8. Consult with the school nurse about general health, vision, and hearing problems of children; learn the symptoms of potential problems, and fill out proper forms for referral when medical problems are indicated. See that follow-through is made.

9. Arrange with your principal to participate in your school's program of volunteer help, if one exists. It is a fine source of extra help for some children in your room when trained volunteers can work with you in your reading program.

10. Borrow from the professional library in your school's IMC. Consult the special files that may be kept for teacher resource. Of special interest are the copies of Language Arts Mini Reports and the reading reports that are published by various commercial companies. Many schools have fine beginnings of a curriculum bank in reading and language which contains centralized collections of teaching/learning ideas.

DRAW ON THE SUPPORTING SERVICES AVAILABLE IN YOUR ADMINISTRATIVE AREA.

1. Know how to make referrals to the Office of Pupil Services that serves your administrative area. Each Office of Pupil Services has a staff of specialists available to you on a consultant or referral basis (a reading diagnostician, a psychologist, a pupil personnel worker, etc.). The typical procedure is for the teacher to prepare a tentative diagnostic report and then complete a referral form which must be signed by the principal and forwarded to the Office of Pupil Services. Work through your principal and the Office of Pupil Services to learn about the referral services that are available in the larger community.

2. Call on the specialized area-based help that is available to your school. Teacher specialists in reading and language arts, the reading supervisor, and other area-based personnel serve each administrative area. Your principal can inform you about the types of personnel who are available to be scheduled to come to your school and to your classroom.

3. Participate in workshops and short courses that may be available from time to time during the school year and summer. Often video and audio tapes on reading instruction are used in these workshops and may be borrowed for use by individual schools.

4. Arrange to visit other schools in the area.

5. Work through your principal to bring problems and ideas of interest to the attention of the reading supervisor of your area and to your area director of instruction.

6. Visit local resources and materials laboratories that are a part of each area. Many teacher specialists have established resource rooms. Project FOCUS personnel also have established resource rooms. Your principal can help you find out where.

7. Discuss with your principal the possibility of using parents and junior and senior high students in establishing programs of volunteer help.

MAKE GOOD USE OF THE SERVICES AVAILABLE AT THE EDUCATIONAL SERVICES CENTER (WASHINGTON CENTER) IN ROCKVILLE.

1. Visit or call the Educational Materials Laboratory. It is an up-to-date source of educational indexes and research files, including those of the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) of the U. S. Office of Education. The ERIC Clearinghouse on Reading, Bloomington, Indiana, publishes a newsletter, the *ERIC/CRIER*. Microforms of research studies are available in a form known as ERIC Microfiche, which may be read and reproduced on a reader-printer machine in the Laboratory. Educational journals are on file alphabetically by title, and back issues are on microfilm. Many services are available to you. The number is 279-3227. (Consult the Language Arts Mini-Report No. 7.)

2. Visit the Review and Evaluation section near the Educational Materials Laboratory to see currently approved materials – texts, kits, other instructional materials – some of which may be borrowed on a temporary basis.

3. Order reading films (professional and children's films) by using forms that are available in your school. Available films are indexed in the card catalog in your school's IMC. Films are indicated by a blue band across the top of the card.

4. Request services from the Department of Educational Media and Technology for duplicating audio tapes and making instructional transparencies.

5. Take advantage of the courses in media that are offered regularly by the Department of Educational Media and Technology. They are advertised in the *Superintendent's Bulletin.*

6. Seek the help of central office supervisors and teacher specialists who are available to visit your school. Ask your principal about contacting those that serve your administrative area.

TAKE ADVANTAGE OF PROFESSIONAL GROUPS, COMMUNITY RESOURCES, AND TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS THAT ARE AVAILABLE IN THE LARGER COMMUNITY.

1. Borrow children's books and professional texts from public libraries. Utilize the services of story-telling specialists that are available.

2. Use the reference libraries at NIH, USOE, NEA, and the various universities and colleges.

3. Study the types of community resources that are available to your school as documented in the MCPS publication *Learning Outside the School.* Some of these resources may be useful in developing the reading and language program of your school and classroom.

4. Use the ERIC research service in reading at the University of Maryland, College of Education, Room 211. It will help in gathering research on a topic.

5. Visit the Curriculum Laboratory in the College of Education at the University of Maryland, College Park campus. It contains professional books and resource files as well as instructional materials for students.

6. Contact central office supervisors of reading to learn about the Citizens' Committee on Reading, Inc. This lay group works directly with MCPS. Find out what services they may be able to render, and learn about the projects that are currently under way. Personnel are happy to talk with you about reading.

7. Take courses at a local university, and participate in their reading conferences.

8. Visit workshops and conferences held by the Greater Washington Reading Council and the Southern Maryland Reading Council
9. Consider membership on the Superintendent's Advisory Committee on English and on MCEA study groups

AFFILIATE WITH LOCAL, REGIONAL, AND NATIONAL PROFESSIONAL GROUPS AND THEIR CONFERENCES AND SUBSCRIBE TO PROFESSIONAL JOURNALS.

1. Montgomery County Chapter, International Reading Association
2. International Reading Association
3. Association for Childhood Education
4. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
5. Elementary, Kindergarten, Nursery Education
6. National Council of Teachers of English
7. Maryland Council of Teachers of English

WHERE CAN I FIND OUT . . .?

If some of the following questions are ones that you have often posed, check back into curriculum bulletins and guides that should be in your classroom and/or your school.

What types of paper are recommended for developing personal writing stories?

Mini-Report No. 9 (March 1971)
The Language Arts (1956) Part 8 and p. 133

Are there any suggestions for developing experience-chart stories with children?

The Language Arts (1956) pp. 36-39; 124-126
Mini-Report No. 5 (May 1970)

Where can I get some additional suggestions about teaching specific reading and reading related skills?

The Language Arts (1956)
Mini-Report Nos. 4 (April 1970), 5 (May 1970), 6 (June 1970), 8 (January 1971), and 9 (March 1971)
Some Suggestions for the Development of Sensory and Language Skills at Kindergarten and Primary Levels (1970)

What language concepts and other generalizations related to reading should I teach when working with literature and composition?

The English Language Arts Course of Study, Part I Elementary (1965)
The Language Arts (1956) Part 4 and 6
Writing in the Elementary School, Bulletin No. 180 (1964)

What attitudes are important in early reading?

. . . And All This IS Reading, Bulletin No. 203 (1967)

What basic tasks are involved in learning to read and write?

Mini-Report Nos. 2 (January 1970) and 3 (March 1970)

What abilities are related to thinking, reasoning, and comprehending?

The Language Arts (9156) pp. 45-48
. . . And All This IS Reading, Bulletin No. 203 (1967)
Reading Skills and Behavioral Outcomes, A Tentative Scope and Sequence Chart (1962)

How can I know what the overview of the language and reading program is in the MCPS?

Program of Studies (pp. 24-34 in 1969-1971 edition)
Curriculum Design – Institutional Level (1968)

What tests are available to use in the reading/language program?

Handbook for Pupil and Program Appraisal, (1968-69) Section V

How can I evaluate the reading/language program in my room?

Evaluative Criteria, Elementary (1967) pp. 95-112
Handbook for Pupil and Program Appraisal (1968-69)

Has anyone described good teaching?

MCPS Pamphlet, *Toward Master Teaching* (1967)

Where can I learn more about the listening and speaking abilities of children as they relate to reading?

Draft, Speaking Skills: Scope and Sequence Chart (1970)

Is there a study guide that is useful to give me additional insights into the process of learning to read?

. . . And All This IS Reading Bulletin No. 203 (1967)

Is there a study guide that is useful to give me a rundown on instructional materials in language arts?

Analysis of Instructional Media Used in Project Focus (1970)
Instructional Materials, Elementary, Language Arts (1970)

Where can I get some help with special techniques for children who experience much difficulty in learning to read?

Specific Learning Disabilities Handbook, Bulletin No. 236, and Supplement (1970)

Where can I obtain a list of curriculum guides and bulletins available to the classroom teacher?

The Program of Studies, (1969-1971) p. 34

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF PROFESSIONAL REFERENCE BOOKS

While it is impossible to cover the wealth of professional reference material that is available in the MCPS Educational Materials Laboratory at Washington Center, it is helpful to annotate a few titles that have, over the years, been outstanding favorites of teachers and other school people. All of these titles can be obtained from the Laboratory. Every teacher and principal should study among the hundreds of volumes on the reading shelves, noting in particular the titles suggested below:

Category: Language
Title: *The Structure of American English*
Author: W. Nelson Francis
Catalog No.: CL 425 FRA

This book provides a very readable introduction to the structure of English. The text brings new understandings about structural linguistics in a clearly written fashion for those who may feel shaky in their knowledge. No previous training in linguistics is needed in order to use this book. Readers will profit by increasing their frame of reference concerning both the nature of the English language and the process of learning to read and write it. Broadens the base of understanding upon which the teacher operates the entire language program.

Category: Psycholinguistics
Title: *The Psycholinguistic Nature of the Reading Process*
Author: Kenneth S. Goodman, Ed.
Catalog No.: 372.4 GOO

A series of papers is presented here by scholars from various disciplines, viewing reading and learning to read as a set of psycholinguistic processes involving interaction between language and thought. Interrelationships among the various language abilities are clarified, and their relationship to learning to read is explored toward the end that a new synthesis in reading can be described. Chapters include "Language and Cognition," "Spelling-to-Sound Patterns," "Linguistics and Materials for Beginning Reading Instruction," and "A Multidisciplinary Approach to Language and to Reading." This offers deep but excellent background material, and is a must for keeping up to date in the field. (See also *Reading Process and Program* by Kenneth S. Goodman and Olive S. Niles, N.C.T.E.)

Category: Professional Readings on Reading
Title: *Issues and Innovations in the Teaching of Reading*
Author: Joe L. Frost, Ed.
Catalog No.: 428.4 FRO

This book brings together a collection of articles by noted authorities in the reading field which will cause critical thinking and inquiry regarding today's issues in reading instruction. The reader will find no immediate solutions to old problems but will discover useful ideas for personal and school-staff study. The book is divided into ten parts, with many readings under each part. Topics include "Language and Cognitive Interrelationships in Reading," "What Approach to Teaching Reading?" "What Content for Today's Children?" "Reading for the Disadvantaged," and "Some Aspects of Research in Reading." The book provides easy and practical reference for the everyday problems and issues confronting teachers.

Category: The Reading Process
Title: *Attitudes and the Art of Teaching Reading* (pbk.)
Author: Roach Van Allen
Catalog No.: 372.4 ALL

This booklet is a one-of-a-kind guide to understanding the language experience approach to reading and how children can move easily and naturally from oral language into reading. It presents a philosophy of how children learn to read by building on their daily experiences. It is practical (contains many actual classroom stories and happenings) and easy to read (every time through brings vital new understandings to the teacher) and makes one rethink the nature of the reading program and the role of the teacher in it. Especially written with little children in mind, the author's ideas are easily modified and applicable for readers of any age. (See also *Learning to Read through Experience* by Roach Van Allen and Dorris Lee.)

Category: Reading Comprehension
Title: *Critical Reading Develops Early* (pbk.)
Authors: Dorris Lee, Alma Bingham, Sue Woelfel
Catalog No.: 372.4 LEE

Published by the International Reading Association, this book details down-to-earth backgrounds and suggestions on how to launch young children into reading, with a stress on critical and creative interpretation of ideas and evaluation of material read. Teachers who turn to this reading aid for help in deepening children's comprehension will add to their understanding of children's developmental progress in learning to think, to understand the language they hear and read, and to clarify and validate their ideas. Specific critical reading skills are reviewed. (See also *Teaching Critical Reading at the Primary Level*, an IRA Service Bulletin by Russell G. Stauffer.)

Category: General Reading Methods
Title: *Common Sense in Teaching Reading, A Practical Guide*
Author: Roma Gans
Catalog No.: 372.41 GAN

Here is an excellent reference for elementary teachers – especially at the primary age level. The author describes the manner in which a child learns to read in home and school settings. In the second part of the book, the author pinpoints the difficult problems faced by schools in teaching today's children to read (low-gear readers, the foreign born, disinterested readers) and what the wise teacher and school faculty will do to meet the challenge. The text also treats the more typical topics of motivation, readiness, comprehension, skill development, and evaluation with fresh and thought provoking narrative. You will enjoy the style of this book.

Category: General Reading Methods
Title: *Principles and Practices in Teaching Reading* (1967 ed.)
Author: Arthur Heilman
Catalog No.: 372.41 HEI

This second and improved edition of a popular text in the teaching of reading offers extensive sections on beginning reading, linguistics and reading, phonics instruction, individualized reading instruction, teaching the reading-study skills, critical reading, and working with remedial readers. Rather inclusive treatment of the continuum of reading skills from beginning days in school through primary, intermediate, and upper elementary years is carefully developed. This is a ready reference for the teacher's desk.

Category: General Reading Methods
Title: *Teaching Reading as a Thinking Process*
Author: Russell Stauffer
Catalog No.: 428.4 STA

The author provides an interesting text which does much to help teachers refocus on the thinking part of reading and the methods that will permit children to interact concerning their reading in order to clarify meaning. Special emphasis is placed on the components of the Directed Reading Thinking Activity – a welcome redefinition and more inclusive look at the directed reading activities and the purposes for reading that have long permeated the reading scene. It offers help for the teacher in understanding the classroom organization and the scheduling of activities which permit children to engage in reading as a thinking process. It also provides excellent background material on cognition.

Category: General Reading Methods
Title: *How to Increase Reading Ability* (1970 ed.)
Author: Albert Harris
Catalog No.: 372.4 HAR

This is an updated version of a classic in the reading field which gives extensive and very scholarly treatment to factors influencing readiness, teaching of beginning reading, causation and treatment of reading disabilities, reasonable expectations for slow learners, teaching for independence in word recognition, and improvement of rate of reading and interest in reading. Lists of references, workbooks, commercial reading games, booklists, and tests are included. The inclusive treatment of the psychology and pedagogy of reading instruction from the developmental point of view offered in the text makes it a very useful compendium for every school to own.

Category: Reading and the Disadvantaged
Title: *Reading for Children Without – Our Disadvantaged Youth* (pbk.)
Authors: Gertrude Whipple and Millard H. Black
Catalog No.: 482.42 WHI

This IRA Service Bulletin deals in a helpful and scholarly fashion with ways to improve the reading programs for the culturally disadvantaged children throughout the United States. Major sections of the book describe the special needs of "children without" and programs in reading for such children that are now under way in this country. Three other especially helpful sections detail classroom activities for disadvantaged children in primary, middle, and secondary grades. It is one of the most useful and practical books available on the topic. The reader is able to gain direct guidance in the development of program.

Category: Reading Programs for Speakers of Other Languages
Title: *English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice* (pbk.)
Author: Mary Finocchiaro
Catalog No.:

This book is designed for prospective or experienced teachers, both native speakers of English and those for whom it is a second language. It is presented mainly in nontechnical language. A general chapter on the English language and language learning is followed by chapters on the curriculum, developing the language skills, materials and techniques of instruction, and testing and evaluation. A chapter on "do's" and "don'ts" is included. Appendix contains some definitions of useful terms and a bibliography. Only 143 pages.

Category: Practical Teaching Suggestions and Background Material
Title: *Creative Teaching of Reading and Literature in the Elementary School*
Author: James A. Smith
Catalog No.: 372.6 SMI

The main objective of this book is to translate into methodology those principles of creative thinking and creative development which have been culled from research in the reading and literature areas over the past ten years. An emphasis has been placed on saving many exciting, potentially powerful, and valid educational ideas from extinction by translating them into practical methods and instructional materials. Outlines of skills are followed by specific ideas to be adapted and used in the classroom. Reading, literature, and poetry ideas are included. (See also *Creative Teaching of Language Arts in the Elementary School* by James A. Smith.)

Category: Corrective Reading Methods
Title: *Reading Difficulties: Their Diagnosis and Correction* (1967 ed.)
Authors: Guy L. Bond and Miles A. Tinker
Catalog No.: 372.4 BON

This is a re-do of a well known and widely used text that considers the nature and causes, the diagnoses, and the remedial treatment of reading difficulities. Specific techniques are presented. The book points out that reading problems are the concern of all teachers in all curriculum areas, not just the concern of the corrective reading teacher. The many practical exercises included in the text will make every teacher more knowledgeable and comfortable in dealing with children who present learning problems in reading.

APPENDIX A

FURTHER DISCUSSION OF READING SKILLS WITH SOME ILLUSTRATIVE ACTIVITIES

1. **Realizes that written words represent spoken words**

   a) **Recognizes familiar words in environment**

ACTIVITIES

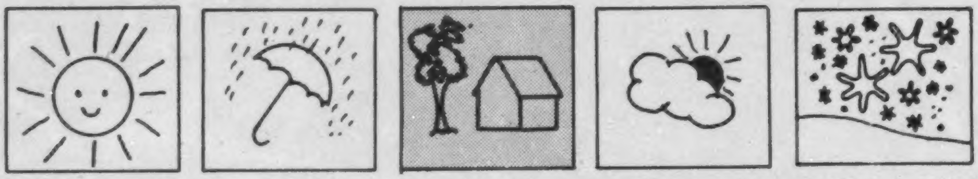
"Happenings" as the School Day Begins

A number of reading skills may be taught during the group oral language activities that are a natural part of the opening session of the day. At such times, the teacher should encourage the children to assume responsibility for these activities rather than doing them himself in the interests of efficiency. One activity that provides opportunity for oral language and reading is keeping a daily weather chart.

Provide a chart of oak tag (or other heavy material) with pockets where the blanks are in the following sentences; and provide cards with words as indicated:

Today is____________________.	cards with names of the days of the week.
The date is____________________.	Months and numerals of dates
Today it is____________________.	sunny, cloudy, foggy, raining, snowing, rainy, stormy
Today is a____________________day.	cold, cool, warm, hot

Also draw pictures like these on cards:



Start with the picture cards. Explain to the children that these are pictures that stand for words that people say when they tell about the weather. Ask volunteers to say the words that convey the meaning expressed by each picture (cloudy, sunny, sunshiny, rainy, raining, snowing, snowy, foggy, bright, stormy) – words that would be useful if one were going to describe the weather by saying to someone, "The weather is_____" or "Today is________."

Tell the children that pictures which stand for words that people say have a name. (Symbols.) Ask a volunteer to say a sentence about today's weather. Then ask him to pick out the picture that stands for the word he uses in his sentence, put it in the third line of the chart, and read the sentence. Have the whole class read the sentence.

Next, tell the children that the printed words in their books are also symbols for what people say; and that when they learn to read, they will learn to look at the printed symbol, say the word it stands for, and think about the idea being conveyed. Introduce the weather words on the cards, and relate them to the appropriate pictures. Introduce the words that fit in the other sentences as the children appear ready for them; and help them until they can read the words at sight and fill in the chart independently each day.

Daily Plans

The teaching of reading can start the first day of school, utilizing the morning planning session. The teacher and children can begin by planning a day's program, recording the plans on a chart, and reading them together. After the children have understood the idea of what planning for the day means, the teacher can provide a chart holder with a heading such as "Our Plans." On sentence strips, puts sentences like:

We will read.
We will write.
We will count.
We will play a game.
We will paint.
We will listen to music.

Also a strip for "Beginning Time" or whatever the class calls the first period of the day when they take care of attendance, lunch count, and other necessary business.

Each morning, discuss with the children what they will do first that day. Then let a child select the appropriate sentence strip and put it in the chart holder. Ask the rest of the class to read the strip to determine whether he has selected the correct sentence. Discuss what the class will do next that day, and have another child select the appropriate sentence strip for the second activity of the day. Again the class determines whether it is correct. Encourage thinking and children's ideas for plans. Record their ideas on any additional strips that may be needed.

After several weeks, have the children consider what they are going to do in more specific terms. A child will still put up the sentence, "We will write." Then the teacher asks, "What are we going to write?" Perhaps it is a letter thanking Mrs. Thomas for showing the class her doll collection. On the blackboard next to the chart, the teacher will put, "We will write to Mrs. Thomas."

Do the same with the sentence, "We will read." If the children have discussed what they plan to read next at the end of the previous day's reading, either in groups or individually, they will remember what they are going to read; and the teacher can put on the blackboard, for example, "Mary's group will read to find out what happened to Sport," or "Donny's group will work on compound words," or "We will get new books at the library." Thus, children will see their own words translated into written form and will be reading without fear of failure.

Using this type of activity has another advantage – it helps children to realize exactly what they are doing in the course of a day. Sometimes a special activity such as art, a play rehearsal, or school assembly makes it impossible to have the regular reading activities for that day. The alert teacher will provide numerous opportunities for reading, but children may not realize that they are reading. It is very discouraging to a parent to ask a child, "What did you read today?" and have the child answer, "Nothing." Using the planning session as an opportunity for reading and for discussing opportunities for reading helps both children and parents to realize that in the course of the day the teacher is providing many reading experiences and that reading is not limited to textbooks alone.

Pop Up

Print children's names on cards. The teacher and a group of children sit in a circle. The teacher shuffles the cards with the children's names and holds one up. That child "pops up" and sits down again. Children soon learn to recognize not only their own names but those of the other children in the group.

Labeling

Print on cards the names of objects in the room – *chalkboard, sink, table, plant, desk, easel,* etc. Hold up a card, let a volunteer read the word; then place the card on the object.

Put up a chart of colors and label each color. Show mixtures of colors "Red + yellow makes orange."

Use advertisements cut from newspapers and magazines showing common objects, and let children match the ads to corresponding words on cards.

Go for a walk in neighborhood; read signs.

Go for an observation walk in school; see how many words can be recognized.

Have children label pictures related to units on pets, foods, the zoo, holidays.

Make menu charts for snack or lunch.

Signs We Know

Put the familiar signs listed below on sentence strips. Read or tell the following to the children:

> One day there was a very bad storm. The wind blew down many signs. Could you help to put them back again? Where would each one go?

1. Keep Off the Grass! (park)
2. School, Drive Slowly (school)
3. Dr. Smith (dentist)
4. Stop! Look! Listen! (railroad crossing)
5. Do Not Park Here! (street fire plug)
6. Matinee Today (theatre)
7. Quiet! Hospital Zone! (hospital)
8. Sale of Rubbers Today (store)
9. Bus Stop (street corner)
10. Through Traffic! Stop! (main street)
11. No Admittance (power plant)
12. No Trespassing (private property)
13. Free Air (gas station)
14. Post No Bills (poles, fences)
15. Caution (street corner)
16. For Sale or Rent (house)
17. Exit (door)

Some signs may be appropriately related to social studies units on subjects like food, animals, and community helpers.

Responses may be made in several ways:

1. A child could tell where he would put the sign. The words in parentheses suggest answers, but any reasonable answer is acceptable.

2. A large mural could be painted, showing the various features that are in the parentheses; and the children could place the signs in appropriate places.

3. The words in parentheses could be put on cards, and the children match them with the signs.

4. Each child could choose a sign and paint a picture incorporating his sign.

1.b) Recognizes frequently used words at sight.

Below are examples of short irregularly spelled words on the Dolch Basic Sight Vocabulary of 220 words, some of which may be among the first the child learns to read:

any
are
been
both
come
do
does
done
four
from
give

has
have
his
into
is
laugh
many
of
once
one
pretty

put
said
shall
some
their
there
to
today
together
two
very

upon
want
wash
was
were
what
where
who
work
you
your

ACTIVITIES

WOW Words

Let each child keep a list of WOW Words (Watch Out Words). These are pairs of words that he confuses because they look somewhat alike. Many of them will be the common irregularly spelled words. Some regularly spelled words that resemble each other also cause confusion.

Each child will have his own individual list of WOW words. They can be kept in a notebook or on a metal loose leaf notebook ring (available at stores where school supplies are sold).

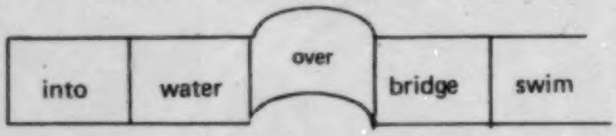
house	were	then	now	were	then	an	where	know	at
horse	wear	them	new	where	when	am	there	knew	it
but	as	on	watch	both	happy	hand	place	us	simple
put	us	one	catch	bath	happen	had	palace	use	sample
daylight	are	and	country	which	quiet	wish	which	alone	his
delight	our	said	county	witch	quite	wash	white	along	has
of	hunt	said	quick	much	cold	tree	face	doll	shall
off	hurt	sad	quiet	march	could	three	fence	dull	shawl
brought	cough	please	hear	through	bell	sang			
bought	caught	peas	heard	thought	bill	sung			

Check to be sure children are "hearing" the sounds in the above words (auditory discrimination). If not, auditory training should precede visual training.

Children can draw from their own WOW words to make cards for playing Concentration, Rummy, and other games.

How Many Steps?

Draw on the chalkboard a sidewalk divided into segments as shown in the illustration. In each part write one of the words to be practiced. Give each child a chance to "take as many steps" as he can by reading the words on the sidewalk. See how many children can cross to the other side.



A variation is to mark off the "sidewalk" on the floor with masking tape, and put the words the children are learning on strips of oak tag. A child draws a word from the pile. If he can read it, he puts it in the first section of the sidewalk and steps into it. He draws another word, reads it, and places it in the next square. He keeps advancing as long as he can read the words he draws. For little children, additional motivation can be supplied by relating the activity to a story which involves advancing across a barrier, such as the Billy Goats Gruff crossing the bridge or the monkeys crossing the river on the backs of crocodiles.

Peach Basket

Put selected words on cards, making a duplicate card for each word. Have the children sit in a circle, except for one child who is "It." The teacher or a child calls out a word. The children holding that word exchange seats. The child who is without a seat tries to get one. The child who does not get a seat waits for the next exchange. At intervals, the caller will say "Overturn the peach basket!" and everyone will scramble for a seat.

Choosing

Put up a list such as the Dolch list in about four columns. The teacher says, "I'm thinking of a word in the second column. It begins like———, or it ends like———" Children take turns saying, "Is it *very*?" The teacher will say, "No, it is not *very*." The child who finally correctly identifies the word gets to pick the next word. Be sure that the children respond as indicated above, not with, "Is it this one?" Thus they will see the word, speak it, and hear it.

A variation of this game is to put up lists of words and have the teacher say, "I am thinking of a word that starts like *'belt'* and means a piece of jewelry." The child would look at the list and respond, "Is it beads?"

Word Rummy

This game may easily be played by five players – a dealer, and four others. Prepare twelve to sixteen sets of word cards, four cards to a set. (Each word is repeated four times.) Reserve one copy of each word for the players' pile, and put the others into the dealer's pack. To begin, each player draws one card from the players' pile.

The dealer draws a card from the dealer's pack and holds it up. The player who has a similar card may claim it after reading it. If no one claims the card, it goes back into the dealer's pack. When a player has four copies of a word in front of him, he may turn them face down and draw an additional card from the players pile. The player who has the most "tricks" wins. If preferred, the trick may consist of three cards.

Be sure that the player is required to pronounce the word as he lays down a trick.

Concentration

Place pairs of word cards face down on the table. The object of the game is to remember where the duplicate cards are, and to pick up matching pairs. Each player turns over two cards in each turn and reads the words aloud. If they match, he may keep them. The player with the most matching pairs wins.

Bingo

Use a sheet of paper ruled into 25 squares. At the bottom of each square, place a sight vocabulary word. Give the child a number of blank markers. As the teacher calls out a word, the child places a marker on the proper square. When he has completed a diagonal, horizontal, or vertical row, he calls Bingo. In order to win, he must read the words in the row which gives him the Bingo. As a variation, play until every square is covered. Sometimes the teacher can spot poor readers by the number of uncovered words.

To help children who do not know all the words, vary the game by showing the card with the word as it is called. This helps poor readers learn to recognize the word, and gives them as much chance as the good readers to win.

Bean Bag Throw

Mark off different shaped boxes on the floor. Put words or phrases in each box. Assign points to each box. Thrower gets four bean bags. He throws and gets points for each word or phrase pronounced correctly. Extra points are given if he can make a sentence using the word.

Pick a Card

Print sight vocabulary words or phrases on small cards. Write a numerical value from one to three in a corner of each card, and place the cards face down on the table. Players (two or more) take turns choosing a card and reading it. If the player can read the card correctly, he keeps it. If not, he replaces it face down on the table and the next player takes his turn. The winner is the player who has the highest score when all the cards have been picked up.

Pairs

This is a rummy-type card game for from two to five players. First, a deck of fifty word cards is made by the teacher or by an able child. The fifty-card deck contains twenty-five pairs of identical cards. Each player is dealt five cards. The first player asks one other player whether he has a specific card. (The asking player must hold the mate in his hand.) If the asking player gets the card, he has a "pair" and may lay it down. If not, he draws a card from the deck. The object is to get as many pairs as possible. For most efficient reading instruction, the players should know some but not all of the words used in a given deck. If the asking player does not know how to read a card, he may show it, and any player or the teacher may read it for him. Likewise, the player being asked may request to see the card asked for, so that he may compare it with the cards in his hand. Occasionally, it is wise to review easy words already mastered, just for fun. Usually, instructional games should contain material that is challenging but not too difficult.

Tracing the Word

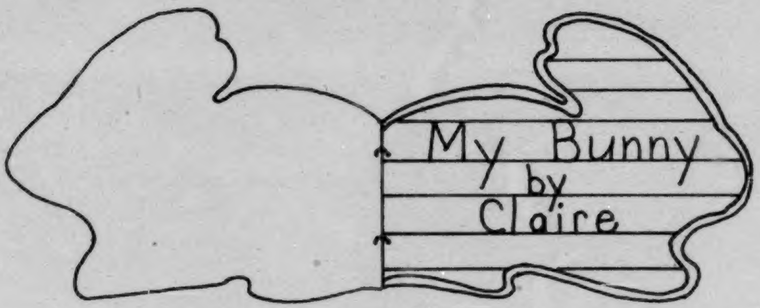
For children who have difficult relating the auditory and visual stimuli, adding tactile and kinesthetic experiences may help.

1. Print or write the name of an object on a piece of paper towel.
2. Have a child trace word with 2 fingers, blending sounds into words (aloud) as he traces.
3. When the child feels that he can visualize the entire word, he may try writing it with his fingers in sawdust or sand.
4. If he fails to write the entire word with its letters in correct order, repeat Step 2 and try Step 3 again.
5. As he learns words, they are placed in his "word bank."
6. Review words from time to time and continue adding new words.

Reading Their Own Stories

Children's writing may be used to teach reading at any stage of development and with any age group. Pupil-written material may include charts, diaries, poems, stories, and logs. Each child should have daily opportunities to express and record — or see recorded — his thoughts, ideas, and aspirations. With five- and six-year-olds who have not yet learned to write, the story or chart will be produced by dictation to the teacher, to an aide, or to an older student who comes in from another classroom to help with reading. Even though only one child is dictating, others can participate by watching the representation of oral language in writing. As he writes, the teacher may call attention to letter formation; to the relation of beginning sounds of words to beginning letters of written words; to the repetition of a particular sound and the written symbol which represents it; to capitalization and punctuation; or to sentence formation. Next, children read back to the teacher or the class what they have dictated. Dictation is also useful for older children who have not sufficiently developed writing skills. Having a typewriter in the classroom on which the dictation can be recorded is a strong incentive for older children to learn to read and to type their own stories. From dictation, they will progress to writing their own stories and sharing them with the teacher or the class when appropriate. *Such sharing should be voluntary, never forced.*

Child-composed materials may be motivated in a number of ways. The child may paint a picture about an experience, then describe it to the teacher or aide who writes the description under the picture. Subjects for stories may come from children's experiences, from pictures, from stimulating films or TV programs, or from class discussions. Subjects may be suggested by a field trip or a visitor to the school. Many teachers have successfully inspired children to write by providing small booklets consisting of several blank sheets stapled together inside a construction paper cover, sometimes cut in a familiar shape such as a car or an animal. Each child selects a booklet whose color or shape appeals to him and writes his story in it.



These materials should be shared and read in pairs and groups, as well as individually, until the enthusiasm for producing reading materials from daily experiences is contagious and continuing.

Bookbinding

Helping children bind their stories into real books they can keep is an excellent activity for motivating reading. Some schools have permanent bookbinding centers, equipped with a supply of cloth scraps and tape, where children take their stories and where a parent or aide assists them in binding. This is one way of binding children's stories:

INSIDE

1. Assemble pages in order.
2. Staple three or four times in left hand margin.
3. Cut binder tape to exact length of book pages. If book is very thick, double-stitch binder should be used in the size which most closely approximates the thickness of the stapled pages.
4. Moisten one sticky side of tape, and attach to front and back edge of pages.

COVER

1. Cut cardboard about ¼ inch larger than pages.
2. Cut material about ½ inch to 1 inch larger than cardboard on all four sides.
3. Stretch material over cardboard and paste the overlap to the cardboard.
4. Attach material-covered cardboard to pages by moistening other side of the stitched binder.
5. Attach colored tape over the hinged back forming a spine.
6. Paste sheet of plain white paper on inside of each cover to conceal raw edges.
7. Admire the completed book!

2. Relates alphabetic symbols to language sounds in context

a) Recognizes consonants and vowels as speech sounds that are combined to make spoken words

Different vowel sounds are heard in the speech of natives of different areas of the United States, and the total number identified varies among phoneticians. Vowels are usually identified by their articulatory features, but such precision is not essential for our purpose. They are identified here first by conventional phonemic symbols between slant lines (used by phoneticians to signify that the symbols are not letters but representations of phonemic sound units). Second, they are identified by dictionary pronunciation respellings. Third, they are identified by sample words in which they may be heard.

Simple Vowels of American Speech:	Dictionary Respellings:	Sample Words:	
/i/	i or ĭ	bit	
/e/	e or ĕ	bet	
/æ/	a or ă	bat	
/ə/	ə or ŭ	but	
/ɨ/	i	below (1st syllable)	/ə/ and /ɨ/ appear to be interchangeable in weak-stressed syllables, depending on surrounding phonemic and articulatory features. Both the symbol /ə/ and the sound it represents in an unstressed syllable are known as the *schwa.*
/a/	ä or ŏ	pot	
/u/	u̇	put	
/o/			Seldom occurs alone except in coastal New England pronunciation of words like *boat*; normally precedes a semivowel, with which it forms a complex vowel nucleus (long vowel or diphthong).
/ɔ/	ȯ	bought	

A diphthong is a nucleus consisting of a longer, more strongly stressed vowel which is the syllabic center, with a short, swift transition or glide to a semivowel at the end. The following are considered diphthongs or complex vowel nuclei:

/iy/	ē	beat	/uw/	ü	boot
/ey/	ā	bait	/aw/ or /æ w/	au̇	bout
/ay/	ī	bite	/ow/	ō	boat
/ɔy/ or /oy/	ȯi	boil	/yuw/	yü	butte

The teacher of reading will identify the first three and the last two as the "long vowels" of phonics. The difference in terminology is not important here. Neither are differences in spelling patterns important to this activity, because we are not writing these words on the board or on charts. We are not trying to introduce sound-spelling relationships, only trying to make the child aware of the different sounds of his language. Relating these sounds to letters and written words is a separate skill discussed in section 2.b).

Consonants in English are 24 in number. They are classified below by the way they are produced:

Stops

/p/

/b/

/t/

/d/

/k/

/g/

Fricatives

/f/

/v/

/θ/ the /th/ in "bath"

/ð/ the /th/ in "bathe"

Sibilants

/s/

/z/

/š/ or /sh/

/ž/ or /zh/

Affricates

/č/ or /ch/

/j/

Nasals

/m/

/n/

/ŋ/ – the final sound of "sing"

Lateral

/l/

Semivowels

/h/

/w/

/r/

/y/

These sounds and their articulation are discussed more fully below.

Stops: complete interruption of the air stream
Close the lips tightly.

1. Voiceless: /p/ Illustrate with words like "pat," "tap," and "puppy."

2. Voiced: /b/ bat, web, rabbit

Bring the tongue tip against the ridge behind the upper teeth and hold the tongue against the upper teeth.

3. Voiceless: /t/ tag, hat, batter
4. Voiced: /d/ dad, dog, add, buddy

Place the back of the tongue against the soft palate.

5. Voiceless: /k/ cat, pick, school
6. Voiced: /g/ go, bug, bigger

Fricatives: frictional noise produced by the stream of breath passing through a constricted opening

Bring the lower lip against the edge of the upper teeth.

7. Voiceless: /f/ fun, off, rifle
8. Voiced: /v/ vase, have, ever

Bring the tip of the tongue against the edge of the upper front teeth.

9. Voiceless: /θ/ thin, bath
10. Voiced: /ð/ then, bathe, weather

Sibilants: fricatives made by projecting a jet of air through a channel in the center of the front part of the tongue against some point of articulation
Direct the jet of air toward the lower edge of the upper front teeth.

11. Voiceless: /s/ sun, miss, whisper
12. Voiced: /z/ zoo, does, easy

Use the front of the tongue to direct a wider stream of air against the ridge behind the upper front teeth.

13. Voiceless: /š/ sure, shed, hash, nation
14. Voiced: /ž/ pleasure, rouge, vision

Affricates: momentary stops released gradually with a slight friction
Bring the tongue to the ridge behind the upper front teeth but back of the position for /t/, and bring it away more slowly than for /t/ so that a friction sound is heard.

15. Voiceless: /č/ church, hitch, nature
16. Voiced: /j/ judge, page, jump, soldier

Nasals: passage of air and sound through the nasal cavity and out the nostrils, while the oral cavity is stopped by:

17. Closing the lips tightly: /m/ me, home, coming
18. Putting tongue in position for /d/: /n/ no, one, any
19. Putting back of the tongue against the soft palate: /ŋ/ sing, finger

Lateral:

20. Close off most of air passage by placing the tip of the tongue against the ridge behind the upper front teeth, while leaving an opening between the side of the tongue and the side and back teeth. The front of the tongue is flat and the back of it is lowered.

Voiceless and voiced: /l/ line, hill, plan, bottle

Semivowels: found in consonant positions in the same syllable with a true vowel which is the nucleus; consist of a rapid glide into or from the vowel sound

21. Oral cavity unobstructed and a slight friction sound produced by vocal cords or pharynx: /h/ hat, him, ahead
22. Round the lips and raise the back of the tongue: /w/ wood, away, twin, cow
23. Place the sides of the tongue against the upper back teeth, front lowered, and tip of tongue turned up and drawn back: /r/ rat, far, arrow
24. Bring the front of the tongue close to the palate and back part of the roof of the mouth, with the tip pointing toward the upper teeth or held against the lower front teeth. Tongue is moved rapidly down into position for the following vowel: /y/ yard, yellow

ACTIVITIES

The idea of a vowel's being a sound formed without any stoppage of the oral cavity or constriction may be introduced by asking the children to say "ah" as they do when the doctor looks at their throats. Ask them why they think he asks them to make that particular sound. Try to get the answer that their mouths are open wide with nothing interfering with his looking down into their throats. Ask them what other sounds they can make by changing the shape of their mouths and lips a little bit, but still without closing off the air stream with their lips, teeth, or tongue. Let them experiment. Tell them that sounds we make this way when we talk are called *vowels.*

Now point out that we can't go around just saying "ah—ooh—eee" all the time; in order to really talk, we have to have another kind of sound. Ask them what else they do with their mouths when they talk to make real words. Ask them to say "ah" again; but at the end of the sound, suddenly put the tip of the tongue against the roof of the mouth and the sides of the tongue against the upper teeth, and then suddenly release it. They should be able to feel and hear that the stream of air and the sound was cut off; and as they released the tongue, they made a sound like /t/. (Do *not* use the name of the letter throughout this activity.) Demonstrate that the sound can be either voiceless /t/ or voiced /d/. Have them place their hands over their ears or their thumb on their larynx to feel and hear the difference between voiced /d/ and voiceless /t/. Tell them that sounds made by stopping the vowel sound with tongue, teeth, or lips are called *consonants.* When we put the vowel sounds and consonants sounds together, we make words. Ask them to put the vowel sound they have made and the voiced consonant sound together to see what word they make, and help them to hear the word "odd."

Tell them that by using their lips they can make a different consonant sound. Ask them to put their lips together and blow out with a little puff of air. They have made the consonant /p/. Ask them to make a new word by putting the /p/ sound at the beginning of the word "odd" that they just made. They will make a new word, "pod." Ask them to close their lips for the /p/ sound, but use their voice this time. Help them to see that they get a new sound /b/. Now ask them to say as many words as they can, using the /p/ and /b/

sounds at the beginning and the /t/ sound at the end, and all the vowel sounds they made earlier. They should come up with the following, which represent the vowel sounds of English. Introduce these words in oral form only. Do not write them on the board. Do not use letter names, only vowel and consonant sounds.

bit	pit
bet	pet
bat	pat
but	putt
	pot
	put
bought	
rabbit (2nd syllable)	
beat	Pete
bait	
bite	
boot	
bout	pout
boat	
butte	
boy (no final consonant)	

Having identified a consonant as a sound made by some kind of interruption of the breath stream coming from the lungs, the children may wish to experiment to see how other consonant sounds are produced. The teacher should use as much or as little of the descriptions and illustrations of consonant sounds on pages A-11–13 as her own inclination and the children's interest and attention span indicate. Such activities would be spread out over a period of time, not all introduced at once. Illustrate the consonant sounds with spoken words only. Do not write the words on the board or use the names of the letters.

After children have experimented with words using different vowel and consonant sounds, ask them whether every word has both consonants and vowels, or whether they can say a word without consonants or without vowels. Ask what is the smallest word they can think of – if they can think of a word that has only one sound (*I, a, oh*), and whether the sound is a consonant or a vowel. Try to lead them to the generalization that every word, no matter how short, has at least one vowel sound. There may or may not be consonant sounds before and after it.

2.b) Identifies letter that represents beginning sound of a word

c) Identifies letter that represents beginning sound of several words

ACTIVITIES

Each child should have a kit of letters. As a writing activity, children may make individual letter cards from the oak tag sentence strips available in schools. Heavy paper or plastic discs are also suitable, because being heavier, they will not skid when the child is trying to manipulate them quickly, especially if used on homemade felt-covered lap boards. Letters should also be displayed on a chart within the children's reach. The teacher may list a word like *ball* on the board and ask the children to say it and find the letter in their kits that matches the beginning *b*.

As a second task, the teacher may ask, "What letter spells the first sound you hear in 'Patty'?"

The children hold up the letter; or one child may point to the letter on the chart, thus associating the visual symbol with the auditory stimulus.

A third kind of task requires having on display objects such as a ball, a doll, and a pencil, or pictures of such objects. Ask the children to say the name of the object to themselves, then identify the letter which represents the beginning sound.

After listening for the sound at the beginning of one word, such as a name, children can listen for a similar sound at the beginning of several words and associate it with a letter. The teacher may ask, "What letter spells the sound that the words *bat, ball,* and *big* start with?" "What letter spells the last sound you hear in *dog, flag,* and *bug*?" Once the child understands that, for example, the spoken words *hen, run,* and *pin* all end in the same sound /n/, and sees that all three written words end in the same letter that represents this sound, he is on the way to understanding the process of recoding written English words in spoken words.

The same kind of activity may be used for an informal test to determine which children have grasped the sound-letter relationships. As the teacher says a word and the children hold up their cards, he can make a quick survey of which children do not understand or are uncertain and therefore need further help.

For little children, only a few letters of the alphabet should be used at one time. Otherwise the task of locating the letter becomes too difficult. As children progress, they may spread more of the alphabet out before them and thus learn which part of the alphabet they will look to for the particular letter.

In speaking of sounds, the teacher should not isolate them, nor say that a letter *makes* a sound. Rather than saying "the *buh* sound" or "the sound that the letter *b* makes," it is preferable to say "the sound you hear at the beginning of *big, ball,* and *boy.*"

Beginning Sounds and Letters in Animal Names

Display pictures of animals whose names begin with a consonant letter. Print the name of each under the picture, omitting the beginning letter. Display one picture with the complete name beginning with the letter to be considered. (In the example below, it is *cat.*) Give a child a set of cards with the letter printed on each one – in this case, *c.* Ask him to look at each picture, say the name of the animal, and if the beginning sound is the same as the beginning sound of *cat,* put a *c* in front of the word, and read the whole name.

cat

_ow

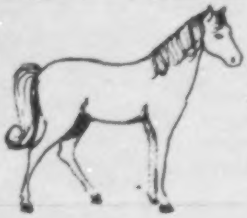
_eer

_abbit

_amel

_alf

_ear



_olt

This activity is not, of course, limited to animal names. It can be done with pictures of any objects the names of which are in the child's oral vocabulary.

Beginning Sounds and Letters in Sentences

To carry the previous activity one step further, write on the board a sentence beginning with a familiar given name that begins with a single consonant letter. Omit the beginning letter in each word after the first. For example:

Mary __ade __ud __ies __ast __onday __orning.

Ask the child to listen as you say the sentence and repeat it after you. Then listen to each word. If it begins with the same sound as the beginning sound in *Mary*, add the letter *m* to the beginning of the word. Finally, add the other beginning letters in this case *p* and *l*; and read the entire sentence, letting the child do as much of this as he is able, but helping him wherever necessary.

Yes or No

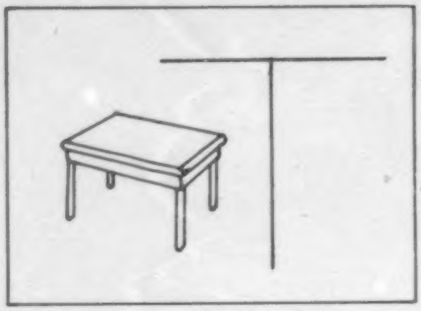
Provide each child with a *Yes* card and a *No* card. Ask questions like, "Does *book* start with a *d*?" The children will hold up one of the cards, and the teacher can tell at a glance which ones do not know the correct answer.

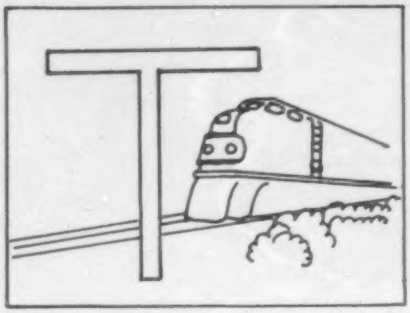
Words That Start Alike

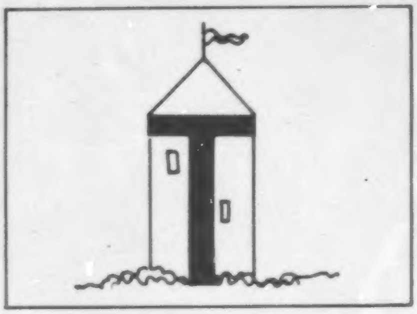
Mark off columns on a sheet of paper. Put two or three words at the top of the columns, one to each column. Have children look through magazines to find pictures that illustrate words that start with the same letter, (or, at a later stage, words that end with the same letter, have the same vowel spelling, etc.). For example, if the word at the top of the column was *book*, and the lesson was initial consonants, the child could paste a picture of a ball in the column. (If the lesson was on vowel letter patterns, the picture could be of something shaking, to indicate the word *shook*. Let the child explain why he selected the picture.)

Alphabet Street

Construct a mock television set out of a large carton or a sheet, with cut out screen and painted dials. Let children plan presentations of different letters of the alphabet similar to those seen on *Sesame Street*. They can show a large letter together with objects or pictures of objects whose names begin with the letter. Alphabet books in the school library would be a good source of ideas and rhymes about letters. Some imaginative children may want to do pictures in which the shape of the letter is worked into the form of the object.







A good activity for helping children become aware of beginning consonant sounds and letters is for the teacher and children together to work the crossword puzzles published in *Highlights for Children*. Each one is made up of words beginning with the same consonant letter. The puzzles can be used with children who are just learning to read because the definitions are given in picture form rather than in words. The teacher could put the puzzle on a transparency, project it on the opaque projector, and have the children discuss the pictures and tell him the words to write in the blanks.

3. Relates letter patterns in a left-to-right sequence to corresponding patterns of language sounds (words)

There are a number of ways of reinforcing recognition of these word patterns – through wide reading of easy materials, phonic analysis, phonic synthesis, or the use of linguistic materials with patterned lists of words with minimal contrasts. The method to be used will probably depend partly on the material available, the suggestions in the teachers' manuals, and the teacher's preference. It is strongly urged, however, that in accordance with the principles set forth in the other sections of this bulletin, the teacher makes a conscious effort to observe how the child learns best and to try to find the methods and materials that will offer him an optimum opportunity for learning. It may be, for example, that some children will learn better by looking at parts (individual letters and phonemes) and putting them together in wholes (words), while other children may see patterns of whole words first, as they are presented in linguistic materials, and then proceed to the individual letter-sound relationships. Recent research findings have suggested that although some children learn letter-sound correspondences better when single phoneme-grapheme units are presented, for other children it is appropriate to present these correspondences in larger units consisting of common letter combinations (VC and VCC).

Whatever method is used, the end result should be that the child can recognize words in each of the patterns given in this section. Many examples are given for each pattern. In presenting them, the teacher should choose words which will be meaningful to children at the particular level at which he is teaching. Some of the examples are infrequently used words. While knowing certain words may not be important, knowing the patterns is important, because they are found in long multisyllabic words which the child will eventually encounter in his reading. They are, therefore, clues to recognizing such longer words.

In teaching these patterns, it is desirable to relate the pattern to vocabulary in stories the child is reading, so that he has the opportunity to read the words in context, rather than merely learning isolated lists of words for which he has no immediate use.

For checking the child's skill, the teacher may use the patterned word lists found in the linguistic readers described in Appendix B. In the case of a fluent reader, the teacher may be able to ascertain very quickly from hearing him read from a basal reader or library book that he has mastered these patterns, inasmuch as any passage of reasonable length will probably include most of the patterns. Such a reader would then need help only with patterns of words which present difficulty as he reads.

ACTIVITIES

Personal Ring of Reading Skills

For children who are having difficulty with sound-spelling relationships, it would be useful to provide a metal loose-leaf notebook ring (available from stores where school supplies are sold). As a child achieves one of the behaviors on this lists, print or type it at the top of a 4 inch x 6 inch card in paraphrased form such as:

> "I can read these words . . ."
> "I can read these words ending in *le.*"
> "I can read these words ending in *are.*"
> "I can read these contractions."

Put on the card samples of words, phrases, or sentences that illustrate the particular skill that the child has learned. Punch a hole in the upper left hand corner of the card, add a reinforcement, and hang it on the ring. Let the child take the ring home from time to time and read the words to his parents. In this way, both the child and his parents will know exactly what skills he has already mastered.

Workbooks

For most of the word recognition skills listed in this and the following sections, workbooks that accompany basal readers are a good source of skill-building experiences. They are probably best used when taken apart so that individual pages can be covered with a plastic sheet on which the child marks his responses with a grease pencil.

Use of such material should be very selective. Before using any such published material, it is well for the teacher to:

1. Have clearly in mind whether the workbook page is being used as a diagnostic or a teaching tool

2. Be sure that the child has had previous instruction necessary to perform the task

3. Give whatever help is necessary to enable him to perform the tasks successfully if the material is being used as a teaching tool

4. Be sure that the exercise actually does contribute to learning the particular skill and is not just busy work for the child

5. Be sure that the material is on a level appropriate for the child's understanding

3.a) Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel-consonant/ phoneme pattern represented by:

(1) CVC

- **(a) With no initial C letter**
- **(b) With differing initial C letters**
- **(c) With differing final C letters**
- **(d) With differing medial V letters**

The spelling pattern for which there are the fewest exceptions in English is the VC and CVC pattern, seen in words like *at, hat, in,* and *bin,* which represents a sequence of vowel-consonant or consonant-vowel-consonant sounds in speech. This pattern usually signals one of the five simple vowel sounds which are called "short" in phonics; and which were listed by phonetic symbol on page A-10: /æ/, /e/, /i/, /a/, and /ə/. These short vowels are represented by the dictionary symbols a or ă, e or ĕ, i or ĭ, o or ä, and ŭ or ə, and in written words by the letters *a, e, i, o* and *u.* Such words are usually emphasized in beginning reading instruction, both because there is a one-to-one correspondence between sounds and letters and because the vowel is almost always short. This is the basic spelling pattern which can be contrasted with other patterns in this section to demonstrate contrasts in the vowel sounds.

In the pronunciation of some of the words in this pattern, as in other patterns, there will be differences in dialect. Some individuals, for example, pronounce the word *dog* with the vowel sound of *law* – /dɔg/; others pronounce it with the vowel heard in *lot* – /dag/. These variations in pronunciation are not important here – we are not teaching the average child to speak. The word is already in his oral vocabulary. What we want to teach him is to recognize the printed combination *dog* as spelling the beginning, medial, and final sounds that he combines when he utters the word /dɔg/ or /dag/.

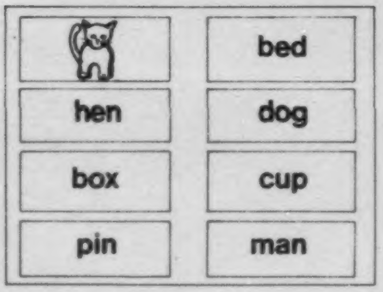
ACTIVITIES

Classifying Sounds

Cut three large circles, each out of a different colored sheet of construction paper. Mark each one with a consonant or vowel letter – whatever is being taught. Provide a number of objects such as plastic toys or pictures, the names of which contain the letters in question. Have the child sort the objects and place them in the right circle. For example, the three circles might represent the letters *a, e,* and *u*; and the objects or pictures might include a cat, a cup, a can, a bed, a pen, a bug, a man, a net, and a nut.

Cut pictures from workbooks or discarded readers that represent familiar words of the CVC pattern such as *cat, dog, hen, bed, pig, bag, top, fox, rug.* Paste them on heavy paper, and type or print the word on the back. Have the child sort them according to the medial vowel letter (or initial or final consonant letters), then turn them over to check himself.

Make a frame by cutting openings the size of the pictures in a piece of cardboard and taping it to another piece of cardboard to provide a backing. Place the pictures in the openings. Let the child look at the picture and write the word, then turn the picture over to check his word. Cover the pictures, and shuffle the words he has written. Then ask him to look at his words and draw a simple picture to illustrate them, then to check himself by referring back to the words in the frame and turning them over to see the pictures.



Climb Down the Ladder

To practice building new words by changing the initial sound, prepare a "ladder" by folding a long strip of paper. On the top fold of the paper, write the last part of the word. On each succeeding fold write one of the words. As the sheet is unfolded, each new word appears in sight. One child may "climb down the ladder" by saying each new word as the sheet is unfolded, or the group may be divided into teams with each team taking alternate turns.

Checkers

Paint an oversize checkerboard on a piece of plywood or heavy canvas. Large plastic checkers several inches in diameter may be purchased at a local toy store, or they may be made out of typewriter ribbon cans or tempera paint jar tops painted red and black. Words in the patterns to be learned are taped to the checkers. As children play, they must pronounce the words as they move the checker. A third child may check each player's reading of the words and then play the winner.

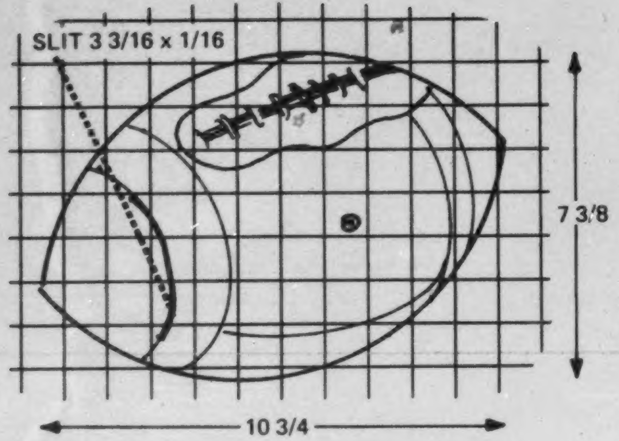
Blending

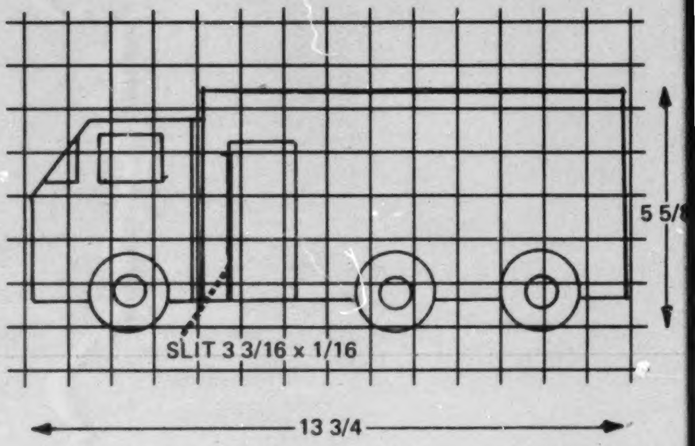
Teachers are encouraged to maintain emphasis on the largest patterns that a child is able to recognize and deal with in a left-right sequence. It should be noted that such a process may take some children considerably longer to master efficiently; but where beginnings are noted, they should be strengthened and reinforced consistently. Only when no progress is noted is it recommended that an entirely synthetic process be encouraged. In such cases, it is necessary to help children blend sounds together to form a word as they look at a sequence of letters. A device made of cardboard or oak tag with a wide vertical slit may be used. The word is printed on an oak tag strip which is drawn slowly from the slit so that the letters appear one-by-one in left-to-right order. As the child sees the letters appear one-by-one, he concentrates on the sounds the letters represent and pronounces them, blending them into a word.

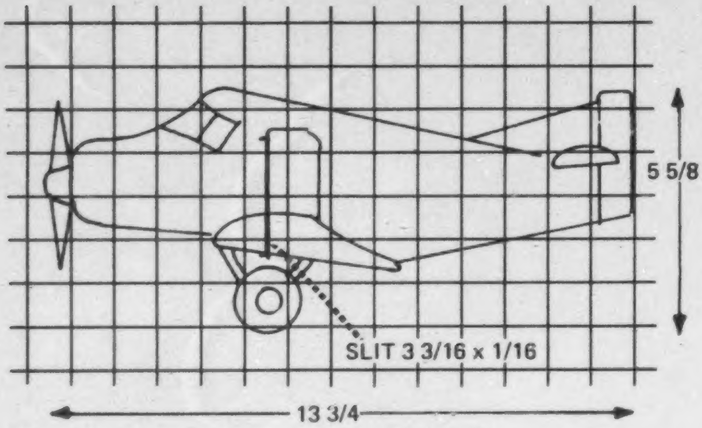
To add interest for young children, the cardboard may resemble a fish or other familiar shape for which patterns are given on the following page. (This device could also be used for short words with beginning and ending consonant blends, although not for words with the final silent *e*, since the final *e* would have to be visible in order to indicate the vowel sound.)

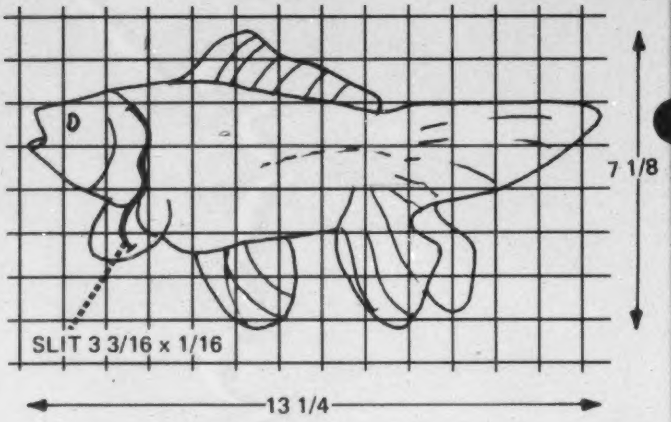
"BLENDING WORDS" PRACTICE FORMS

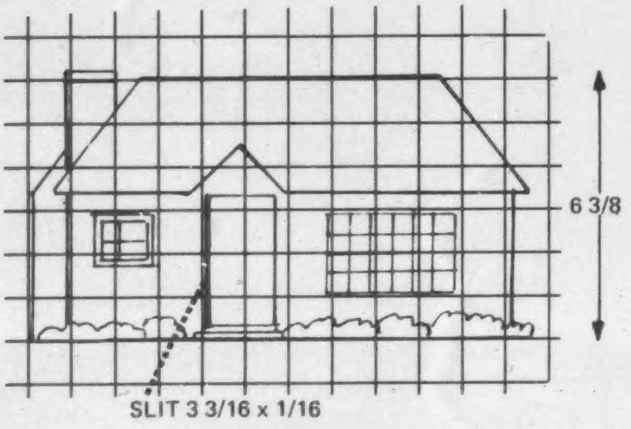
SCALE: 1 square=1 inch

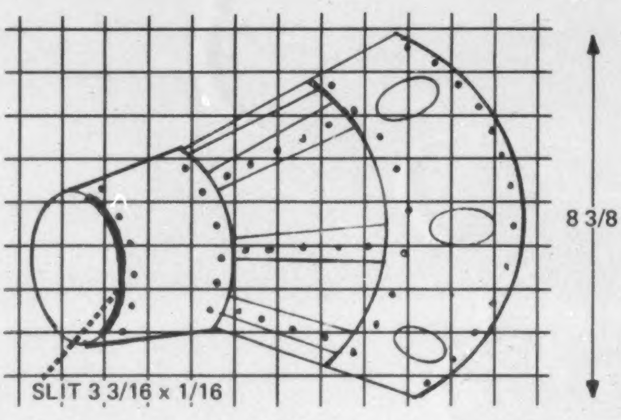








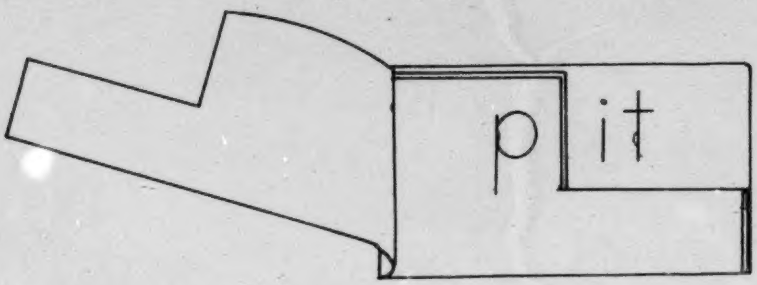


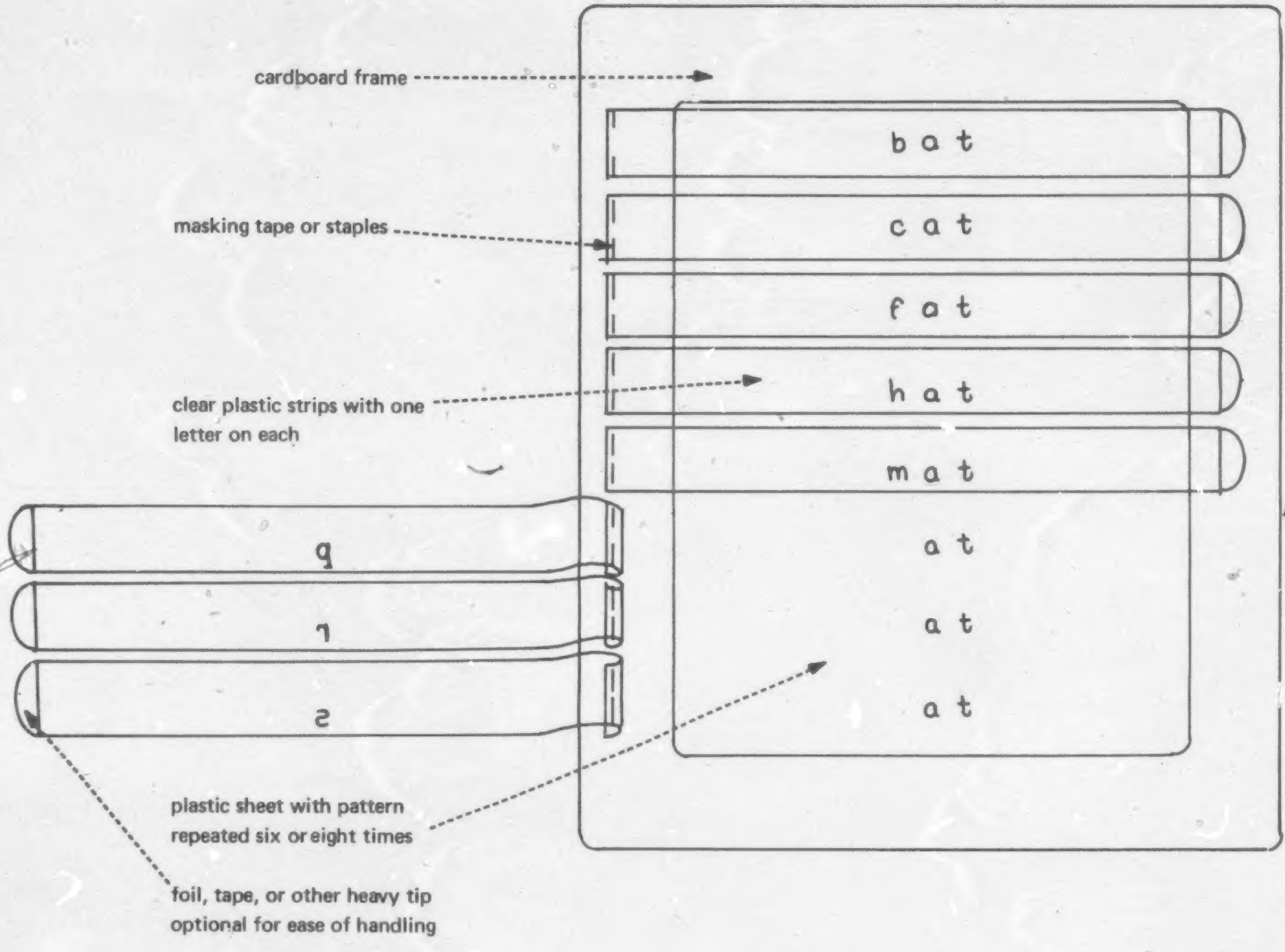


Seeing Patterns

A useful manipulative device for teaching word patterns to a small group or a class by means of the overhead projector is made of a sheet of plastic in a cardboard transparency frame or other heavy paper frame. On the plastic are printed the unchanging parts of the words in a particular spelling pattern. For example, if the pattern is the CVC words ending in *-at* with varying initial consonant letters, the plastic would have the *-at* combination repeated one under another about eight times. On strips fastened at the left side of the frame would be the initial consonant letters which are to be added to the beginning of the combination to make various words: *bat, cat, fat, hat, mat, pat, rat, sat.* As the teacher presents the combination he has the children notice first that the vowel-final consonant letters are the same, then one-by-one he would bring the plastic strips across the frame to form the words, and have the children pronounce them. The strips could be removed and presented again in different order. Children can manipulate the strips themselves to make the words. See next page for a diagram of the frame.

A simpler form of the same kind of device which the children may make and keep at their desks for practice consists of several small cards or papers stapled together. A small square is cut out of the upper right hand corner of each paper except the bottom one. On the bottom one, a word in the pattern to be practiced is printed so that only the medial vowel and final consonant letters show. On each of the other pieces of paper is printed a different consonant letter which combines with the letters on the bottom sheet to form a new word. By reversing the construction, that is by stapling on the right and cutting the square on the left side, the device can show contrasting final consonant letters.




cardboard frame
masking tape or staples
clear plastic strips with one letter on each
plastic sheet with pattern repeated six or eight times
foil, tape, or other heavy tip optional for ease of handling
bat
cat
fat
hat
mat
at
at
at

3.a) (2) Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel-consonant/ phoneme pattern represented by:

CVC + *e*

One of the most frequent patterns in English written words is that in which the nature of the vowel sound in the /consonant-vowel-consonant/ phonemic pattern is signalled by a final *e*. The *e* does not represent a sound; it serves rather as an indicator of one of the vowel nuclei traditionally called long vowels in phonics and spelled by *a, e, i, o,* or *u*. The *e* does not *make* the vowel long, and we should avoid saying this to children. Letters are marks on paper; they do not make speakers do anything, but they do serve as graphic signals of certain speech sounds.

The term "long" may be misleading to some children. In reality the "long" vowels do not take any longer to pronounce than the short vowels. The distinction lies in the absence or presence of a glide. If children find the terminology "long" and "short" difficult to understand, slowing down the pronunciation of a word with a vowel nucleus such as *made,* will make the glide evident, both in the sound and in the movement of the jaws as the glide is articulated.

Many pairs of English words illustrate the contrast in pronunciation signalled by the presence or absence of the final *e*:

fat	/fæt/	fate	/feyt/
met	/met/	mete	/miyt/
din	/din/	dine	/dayn/
hop	/hap/	hope	/howp/
cut	/kət/	cute	/kyuwt/

The final *e* signals a second kind of contrast in words in which the final consonant letter or digraph may represent different consonant phonemes. For example:

g represents /g/ and /j/	rag	rage	
	sag	sage	
	hug	huge	
s represents /s/ and /z/	us	use	(verb)
	Ross	rose	
th represents /θ/ and /ð/	bath	bathe	
	wreath	wreathe	
ng represents both /ŋ/ and /nj/	sing	singe	
	rang	range	

In the above pairs of words, both the vowel sound and the final consonant sound change; and the final *e* serves as an indicator of this change.

This pattern may be presented by contrasting it with the CVC pattern. Contrasting pairs may be written on the chalkboard, and the children may be asked to observe likenesses and differences and come to a conclusion about the relation of the spelling to the pronunciation. Some contrasting pairs are listed below, from which the teacher may select examples appropriate for the particular group:

mad	made	met	mete	bon bon	bone
wag	wage	pet	Pete	won ton	tone
rag	rage	bid	bide	hop	hope
sag	sage	hid	hide	lop	lope
pal	pale	rid	ride	mop	mope
tam	tame	dim	dime	tot	tote
can	cane	Tim	time	not	note
man	mane	din	dine	rot	rote
Dan	Dane	fin	fine	hug	huge
pan	pane	pin	pine	us	use
van	vane	tin	tine	cut	cute
cap	cape	win	wine	dun	dune
gap	gape	rip	ripe		
nap	nape	bit	bite		
tap	tape	sit	site		
fat	fate				
hat	hate				
mat	mate				
rat	rate				

Because of the great numbers of words that are spelled with a final *e,* there are several ways they can be grouped for observing the sound and spelling contrasts:

(1) With differing initial consonant letters as in *bake, lake, cake, make, sake, take,* and *wake*
(2) With differing final consonant letters as in *made, make, mane, mate*
(3) With differing medial vowel letters as in *pale, pile, pole; mate, mete, mite, mote, mute*

To demonstrate that the vowel sound is identical with the name of the vowel letter, have children write the beginning or medial vowel letter after each of the words below. Say the letter, then the word. Then say a sentence using the word, to hear the word in context.

age ______ ate ______ eve ______ ode ______ use ______

cage ______ gate ______ pile ______ rope ______ mine______

pole ______ cute ______ huge______

For demonstrating the contrasting word pairs, such devices as the cardboard frame with movable plastic strips described in the previous section may be utilized. The various games described in the previous section can also be adapted to these patterns. A word of caution: Don't overdo any of these games. Limit the number of players; and for little children, keep the sessions fairly short in order to sustain interest. Try to keep players fairly evenly matched, or vary the rules to give the slower students a chance to compete successfully.

3.a) (3) Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel-consonant/ phoneme pattern represented by

CV + doubled C letters

In a large group of common words in English, the final consonant phoneme /f/, /l/ or /s/ is spelled by doubled letters *-ff, -ll, -ss.* In most of these words, the doubled final consonant letter signals a short vowel as indicated below:

/æ/

gaff
riffraff
staff

bass
class
glass
mass
pass
lass

/a/

doff
scoff

/e/

Jeff

bell
dell
fell
jell
quell
pell mell
sell
tell
well

dress
less
mess
stress

/i/

cliff
miff
stiff
tiff
whiff

hiss
kiss
miss

bill
dill
fill
gill
hill
Jill
kill
mill
pill
rill
sill
spill
still
till
will
quill

/ɔ/

buff
huff
muff
puff
ruff
scuff
scruff
stuff
fluff

dull
gull
hull
lull
mull
skull

fuss
muss

There are several common words written with a vowel letter plus doubled consonant letters: *add, Ann, ebb, egg, ill, inn, off.* A few words end in *-tt* and *-zz: mitt, mutt, putt, jazz, fizz, fuzz.* Recognizing the short vowel followed by a single consonant sound of such words can furnish a clue to the vowel sound in similar combinations in longer words.

In pronouncing words ending in *-all,* the pattern changes. The vowel is /ɔ/ rather than /æ/:

all
ball
fall
gall
hall

mall
pall
small
stall
tall
wall

In words ending in *-oll*, the *o* represents the diphthong or long vowel /ow/:

boll
droll
knoll
poll
roll

scroll
stroll
toll
troll

Two exceptions are *doll* and *loll*.

In addition to the six words listed above ending in *-ull*, in which the *u* represents the short vowel /ə/, there are three common words in the same pattern in which the vowel is /u/ as in *put: bull, full, pull.*

Pronunciation of words ending in *-oss* varies with dialect. In parts of New England, for example, words like *boss, loss, moss, Ross,* and *toss* would be pronounced with the vowel /a/ heard in *box* whereas in the speech of Montgomery County the vowel /ɔ/ heard in *bought* would be heard in these words.

Words ending in *-ck* are sometimes classified with the words ending in doubled consonant letters and sometimes treated as words with a "silent" letter. They are included here as part of the final doubled consonant letter pattern, because the final *c* and *k* usually represent the same phoneme /k/ and because the spelling pattern signals the short vowel sound. It would appear desirable to stress these regularities of sound-spelling correspondences, rather than irregularities, whenever possible.

back
black
crack
hack
knack
lack
pack
quack
rack
sack
stack
tack
track
wrack
snack

beck
deck
check
fleck
neck
peck
speck
wreck

chick
click
Dick
flick
hick
lick
kick
pick
sick
stick
tick
quick
wick

block
clock
cock
dock
crock
flock
lock
knock
mock
rock
sock
stock
tock

buck
duck
luck
muck
ruck
suck
stuck
struck
tuck
truck

ACTIVITIES

Rhyming Words

The teacher may read words in a particular pattern, ask the children to make up sentences for the different words, and write them on the board as the children dictate them. Then the children would read them back, giving the sentences normal intonation.

A number of Mother Goose and finger play rhymes with which children will already be familiar can be put on charts for children to observe the relationship between the sound and letter patterns as they recite them. Some which would illustrate the doubled final consonant letter pattern are given below.

Finger Plays

This is the mother, kind and dear.
This is the father, sitting near.
This is the brother, strong and tall.
This is the sister, who plays with her ball.
This is the baby, the pet of all.
See my whole family, large and small.

Two little dickie-birds sitting on a hill,
One named Jack and one named Jill.
Fly away, Jack. Fly away, Jill.
Come again, Jack. Come again, Jill.

This is a choo-choo train,
Puffing down the track.
Now it's going forward,
Now it's going back.

Five little ants, in an ant hill,
Busily working and never still.
Do you think they are alive?
See them come out – one, two, three, four, five.
These five little ants, near an ant hill,
Ran as hard and ran with a will
To gather food to keep alive;
Now they go in – one, two, three, four, five.

This is my turtle,
He lives in a shell.
He likes his home very well.

This great big train goes up the track,
and says____________and then goes back.

A great big ball,
A little ball,
A middle-sized ball I see.
Let's see if we can count them,
One, two, three.

Mother Goose Rhymes

Jack, be nimble,
Jack, be quick,
Jack, jump over
The candlestick.

Peter, Peter, pumpkin eater,
Had a wife and couldn't keep her.
He put her in a pumpkin shell,
And there he kept her very well.

Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall,
Humpty Dumpty had a great fall.
All the King's horses and all the
Kings's men
Couldn't put Humpty together again.

Baa baa, black sheep,
Have you any wool?
Yes sir, yes sir,
Three bags full.

Jack and Jill went up the hill
To fetch a pail of water.
Jack fell down and broke his crown,
And Jill came tumbling after.

Hickory dickory dock,
The mouse ran up the clock.
The clock struck one,
The mouse ran down.
Hickory dickory dock.

If children need further practice in associating these letter patterns with the appropriate sounds, the games and activities described in the previous sections can be utilized.

These words can also be presented by contrasting them with similar words with long vowel sounds spelled either with the final *e* or the two medial vowel letters. Ask children to observe the pairs of words in the two columns below, and try to relate the contrasts in spelling patterns to the contrasts in vowel sounds:

bass (fish)	base
dell	deal
knell	kneel
sell	seal
fill	file
mill	mile
pill	pile
still	stile
till	tile
fuss	fuse

Similar contrasts can be shown with the following words where the vowel sound shifts from /æ/ to /ɔ/ to /ey/:

/æ/	/ɔ/	/ey/
bat	ball	bale, bail
hat	hall	hale, hail
stab	stall	stale
tab	tall	tale, tail
wag	wall	wail

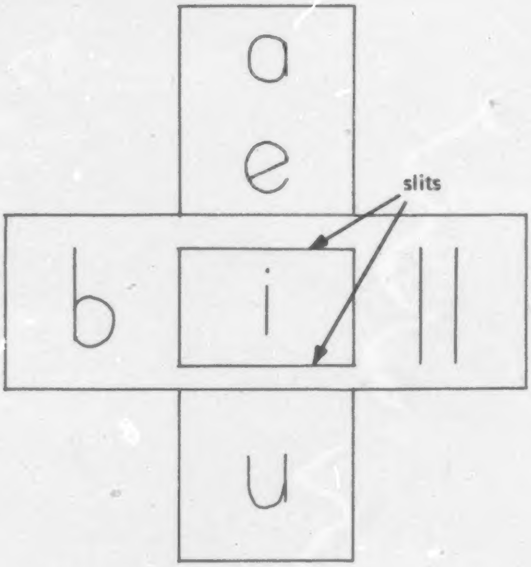
Vowel Sounds and Letters

Put the following list of words on the board or on a chart. On cards, put the vowel letters indicated. Hold a vowel letter in the empty space and ask, "How do you say this word when it is spelled with this vowel letter?"

b–ll	a	e	i	u
b–t	a	e	i	u
b–d	a	e	i	u

c—p	a			o	u
b—g	a	e	i	o	u
p—ll			i	o	u
g—ll			i		u
p—t	a	e	i	o	u
b—nd	a	e	i	o	
l—t		e	i	o	
r—ng	a		i		u
r—t	a			o	u
f—n	a		i		u
m—ss	a	e	i	o	u
w—ll	a	e	i		
b—ck	a				u
s—ck	a		i	o	u

A variation is to put the words on horizontal paper strips and the vowel letters on vertical strips. Make two slits in the horizontal strip so that the vertical strip can slide up and down, showing one vowel letter at a time in the blank space.



3.a) (4) Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel-consonant/ phoneme pattern represented by:

CVVC

- **(a) With no initial C letter**
- **(b) With no final C letter**
- **(c) With initial and final C letters**

The use of two vowel letters to represent either a diphthong or a simple vowel sound is common in English spelling. The combinations are numerous. Some sounds can be represented by a single vowel letter, a doubled vowel letter, or two different vowel letters (for example, /iy/ may be spelled *e, ee, ea* or *ie*). Some letter combinations may represent two or three different sounds (for example, *ea* may stand for /iy/, /ey/, or the simple vowel /e/.) The situation is not as chaotic as it might seem at first glance, however; patterns in sound-spelling relationships can be identified and observed. Children can be encouraged to make generalizations about these sound-spelling patterns and apply them to new words.

The various combinations are listed in the next pages. First the vowel sound is given, either diphthong or simple vowel. Then the various pairs of vowel letters which may represent that sound are given. Then one-syllable words with the two vowel letters in initial, final, and medial position are given, followed by a few words of more than one syllable.

Many of the words listed in this section are identical in pronunciation with words spelled with a single medial vowel letter and final *e*. The spelling contrast therefore, signals a contrast in meaning. Such homophones (words having the same sound) are discussed in section 7.

/iy/						
ea			ee		ie	ei
eat	beam	each	eel	feel	brief	seize
	cream	beach		heel	chief	sheik
flea	dream	breach	bee	peel	grief	
lea	gleam	peach	fee	reel	thief	ceiling
pea	ream	preach	free	steel	belief	leisure
sea	seam	reach	lee			either
tea	scream	teach	see	deem	field	neither
	stream		tee	seem	shield	conceit
bead	steam	heath	tree		yield	deceive
lead	team	breathe	three	seen		
mead		wreath	wee	teen	niece	
read	bean	beneath			piece	
	clean		deed	deep		
leaf	dean	east	feed	keep	liege	
sheaf	lean	beast	breed	seep	siege	
	mean	feast	heed	sweep		
leak	wean	least	need	weep	grieve	
peak		yeast	reed	beet	believe	
speak	cheap		seed	greet	relieve	
teak	heap	peace	speed	meet		
weak	leap		steed	street		
sneak	reap	cease	bleed	sweet		
squeak		grease	creed			
deal	beat	lease	weed	breeze		
heal	feat	tease		sneeze		
meal	heat	appease	beef			
peal	meat		reef			
real	neat	eaves				
seal	peat	heave	creek			
steal	seat	leave	leek			
squeal	treat	weave	meek			
teal	wheat	bereaved	peek			
veal			reek			
zeal		season	seek			
	eagle	treason	sleek			
	beagle	reason	week			

/ey/				
ai			ei	ea
aid	aim	faint	veil	break
braid	claim	paint	vein	great
laid	maim	plaint	rein	steak
maid		quaint	skein	
paid	brain	saint		
raid	chain	taint	weigh	
	drain		neigh	
waif	gain	faith	sleigh	
	grain	wraith		
ail	main		eight	
bail	pain	straight	freight	
	plain		weight	
flail	rain	restraint		
frail	slain		reign	
mail	sprain			
nail	stain		feint	
pail	train			
quail	twain		neighbor	
rail	vain			
sail				
snail	bait			
tail	gait			
trail	trait			
wail	wait			
	plait			
	strait			

/ɔy/			
oi			oy
oil	choice	boisterous	oyster
boil	voice	cloister	
broil		doily	royal
coil	noise	poison	
foil	poise	roister	Boyle (and other similar proper names)
soil			
spoil	joint		
toil	point		
coin	hoist		
join	joist		
loin	moist		
voile			

/uw/ or /yuw/					
oo		ew	eu	ui	ou
boo	boot	blew	feud	fruit	group
too	hoot	chew		suit	
goo	loot	crew	sleuth		ghoul
moo	moot	dew		juice	
	root	drew	eulogy	sluice	youth
food	shoot	few	neuter		
mood	toot	flew	neutral	bruise	route
		grew	neutron	cruise	
goof	choose	hew			through
proof	goose	knew	deuce	nuisance	
	loose	mew			wound
spook		new			
	smooth	pew			cougar
cool	tooth	slew			
fool		spew			
pool	boost	stew			
school	roost	screw			
spool		shrew			
stool	aloof	strew			
tool	cartoon	threw			
	noodle				
boom	rooster	shrewd			
broom					
doom		hewn			
gloom		strewn			
loom					
room		askew			
		crewel			
boon		mildew			
loon		nephew			
moon		newel			
noon		Matthew			
soon		Kewpie			
spoon		pewter			
		steward			
coop					
loop					
stoop					
troop					

/ow/

oa

goad
load
road
toad

oaf
loaf

oak
soak

coal
foal
goal

foam
loam
roam

groan
loan
moan
roan

soap

oat
boat
coat
goat
moat

coax
hoax

coach
roach

boast
coast
roast
toast

ow

bow
blow
crow
flow
glow
grow
low
mow
row
sow
show
slow
snow
stow
throw
tow

bowl

own
blown
flown
grown
mown
sown
shown
thrown

below
arrow
rainbow
follow
pillow
yellow

ou

soul

mould

moult

dough
though

shoulder
boulder
poultry

ew

sew
shew (Bibl.)

/aw/

ow

bow
cow
how
now
pow wow
row
sow
vow
wow

brow
chow
plow
prow
scow

crowd

owl
scowl
howl
growl
clown
crown
town
down
drown
frown
browse

towel
flower
glower
cower
chowder
powder
rowdy

ou

cloud
loud
proud

foul
out
bout
gout
lout
pout
rout
scout
spout
shout
stout
trout
sprout

found
ground
hound
mound
pound
round
sound
count
mount

couch
grouch
pouch
slouch

south
mouth

gouge

house
grouse
mouse
louse
rouse

doubt

drought

lounge

astound
fountain
mountain
account
around

Two-vowel letter combinations can also represent simple vowels:

/e/		/u/			/ə/
ea		ou	oo		ou
bread	breath	could	good	book	touch
dead	death	should	hood	cook	
dread		would	stood	crook	rough
head	realm		wood	look	tough
lead				nook	slough
read	meant		hoof	rook	
spread			woof	took	young
tread	health			brook	
thread	stealth		wool	shook	cousin
	wealth				
deaf				hoop	double
	instead				trouble
threat	heather			foot	couple
	leather			soot	enough
	weather				
	sweater				
	pleasant				
	ready				
	steady				
	heavy				
	breakfast				
	meadow				

/ɔ/*						
au			aw			ou
fraud	cause	caution	caw	hawk	awful	cough
		daughter	claw		awkward	trough
auk	aught	dinosaur	draw	awl	awning	
	caught	maudlin	flaw	bawl	mawkish	ought
caul	fraught	laudatory	jaw	brawl	trawler	bought
Gaul	naught	laundry	law	crawl		brought
haul	taught	naughty	maw	shawl		fought
maul		raucus	paw	yawl		sought
Paul	audacious		raw			wrought
Saul	audience		saw	dawn		
	auditorium		squaw	fawn		
taut	autograph		taw	pawn		
haunt	automobile		straw	spawn		
caulk	autumn		thaw	lawn		
fault	caucus		yaw	yawn		
vault	cauliflower		awe			

*Some of these words may be drawn out into a diphthong /ɔh/ by some speakers.

ACTIVITIES

Words in which two adjacent vowel letters represent the vowel nucleus of a syllable will be learned through the various means already mentioned in previous sections — by observing and listening to the teacher as he records dictation of stories and experience charts, by reading of easy materials, as well as by more formal teaching activities. The same games and activities suggested for the patterns previously discussed may be adapted to these words. In many Mother Goose rhymes, for example, the rhyming words fall into this category.

Since the listing of various patterns and the sounds they represent indicates that a pair of vowel letters may represent several sounds, it may be suggested that children faced with an unfamiliar printed word with two adjacent vowel letters should experiment with pronunciation as follows:

ai — almost always the vowel sound of *aim*
au — almost always the vowel sound of *haul*
aw — almost always the vowel sound of *hawk*
ee — almost always the vowel sound of *beet*
ea — try the vowel sound of *beat,* then of *head*; less frequent: *break*
ei — try the vowel sound of *vein,* then of *seize*
eu — almost always the vowel sound of *feud*
ew — almost always the vowel sound of *blew*
ie — almost always the vowel sound of *chief*
oa — almost always the vowel sound of *boat*
oi — almost always the vowel sound of *oil*
oo — try the vowel sound of *boot,* then of *book*
ou — try the vowel sound of *loud,* then of *touch, soul, cough, group, could*
ow — try the vowel sound of *cow,* then of *blow*
ui — almost always the vowel sound of *fruit*

It would be useful for children to keep their own lists of these words that they encounter in their reading or that they need in writing and reading their own stories. The words could be kept on a loose leaf binder ring or in a notebook, filed under key words. It would also be useful to keep similar wall charts to which children could add new words.

For more practice and review where needed, words may be grouped in various ways. Words with similar spelling representing different vowel sounds may be contrasted: *breath — breathe.* Words may also be grouped to show the different spellings that represent the same sound: I *see* a *piece* of *meat.*

Words with two medial vowel letters may be presented in pairs which contrast in both sound and spelling:

bet	beat	fed	feed	bat	bait	sly	slay	rod	road
best	beast	met	meet	mad	maid	pry	pray	sop	soap
led	lead	pep	peep	man	main	sty	stay	cot	coat
men	mean	ten	teen	clam	claim			sock	soak

pond	pound	man	mane	mean	bread	breed	hot	hoot
shot	shout	hat	hate	heat	sweat	sweet		
prod	proud							
spot	spout							

3.a) (5) Recodes one-syllable words with initial or final consonant phoneme spelled by two different letters, a digraph

In this group of words, the initial or final consonant sound is represented in print by two letters known as a digraph. Among the sounds linguistically considered as consonants (single phonemes involving some constriction or stoppage of the breath stream) for which there is no single grapheme are the following, indicated first by their phonemic symbol, then by the digraph which usually represents them, then by sample words:

Phonemic Symbol	Digraph	Sample Word
/č/	ch	chat, inch
/š/	sh	shop, wish
/θ/	th	thin, bath (unvoiced)
/ð/	th	this, bathe (voiced)
/ŋ/	ng	sing (nasal consonant never found in initial position in English)

Other digraphs represent consonant sounds usually represented by single consonant letters:

/f/	ph	phone, graph
/f/	gh	rough

The digraph *ch* may also represent the phoneme /š/, usually spelled *sh*, in words derived from French such as *chef* and *gauche*.

Common words which illustrate the use of the digraphs *ch* and *sh* in initial and final position are:

chap
chalk
charm
chat
check
chest
chill
chin
chip
chirp
chop
change
chug
chain
chair
charge
chart

rich
much
couch
touch
which
spinach

shad
sham
shall
shank
shade
shake
shale
shame
share
shave
she
shed
shell

shift
shin
ship
shoe
shop
shore
shot
show
shun
shingle
shutter

cash
dash
gash
hash
lash
mash
rash
sash
crash
dish
fish
wish
crash
splash
mush
rush
slush

cheek
cheese
chief
child
church
champion
chicken
chimney
chimpanzee
chubby

polish
radish

The use of *th* to represent two different consonant sounds, the unvoiced /θ/ heard in *thin* and the voiced /ð/ heard in *this*, resulted from the Norman Conquest in 1066. Previously Old English writing had used the Runic character þ and ð for these two sounds. As French became the language of the ruling class, written English was hardly used for a century and a half; and when it did eventually come back into use, its spelling was influenced by Latin and French orthography.

The existence of two consonant sounds represented by one digraph, however, is not a matter of complete confusion. Even here, a pattern may be discerned that may be helpful in recognizing words spelled with initial *th*. In initial position, the consonant heard in *than* occurs only in function, or structure, words. With this clue, we can differentiate the beginning sound of the function, or structure, words in the first column below from that of the nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in the second column:

/ð/		/θ/	
than	them	thank	thought
that	then	thick	throng
the	there	thin	throne
these	they	thirst	throw
this		think	thread
though		thing	three
those		thorough	thud
thus		thorn	thumb

There is also a clue to the pronunciation of *th* in final position. Words that end in *th* are usually pronounced with the unvoiced /θ/. The presence of a final *e*, however, indicated that the *th* represents the voiced /ð/:

/ð/	/θ/		
bathe	bath	tooth	both
blithe	math	wealth	birth
lathe	health	width	death
lithe	ninth	warmth	beneath
loathe	path	wreath	
tithe	teeth	truth	Exceptions:
wreathe	tenth	myth	smooth, with

The phoneme /ŋ/ occurs in final position in one-syllable English words, represented by the digraph *ng*.

bang
fang
gang
hang
pang
rang
sang
sprang
tang

king
ring
sing
swing
sting
string
spring
wing
zing
ding dong
ping pong

gong
tong

long
song
strong
wrong

hung
lung
rung
sung
sprung
strung
stung
swung

In pronunciation of words ending in *nk*, the *n* alone represents the /ŋ/ phoneme. The /k/ is a separate sound, and the two are blended together into /ŋk/:

bank
crank
flank
dank
blank
hank
lank
prank
rank
sank
spank
tank

brink
clink
drink
link
mink
pink
rink
sink
slink
wink

monk

bunk
dunk
flunk
hunk
punk
sunk
shrunk
chunk

The use of *ph* to represent the phoneme /f/ is found in words derived from French and Latin, which used *ph* to represent the Greek Φ.

phase
phlox
phone
phrase

phantom
pharaoh
pharmacy
pheasant
Philadelphia
philosophy
phoenix
phonograph
phosphorus
photograph
physical
physics

In final position mainly
in words ending in
-graph.

Pronunciation of *gh* as /f/, on the other hand, reveals the development of a word from Old English through Middle English:

laugh
enough
rough
tough
trough

In some words borrowed from French, *ch* represents the /š/ sound usually spelled *sh*:

chalet	cloche
chef	gauche
chic	
Chicago	
chiffon	
chivalry	

ACTIVITIES

Put several words on the board beginning with the digraph to be taught – for example, *chick, chop,* and *church.* Ask the children to listen for the beginning sound as you say the words. Then ask them to suggest other words that begin with the same sound. Put these on the board as the children suggest them, and ask the children to observe what is similar about the spelling. Follow the same procedure with final digraphs. Make sure that the children understand that the two letters of the digraph represent one sound. To help clarify this, contrasting pairs of words with single consonant letters and consonant digraphs may be presented:

cat	chat	sad	shad	tan	than	ban	bang
cap	chap	ham	sham	hat	that	fan	fang
harm	charm	sank	shank	he	the	pan	pang
hill	chill	sake	shake	hose	those	ran	rang
hip	chip	sale	shale			tan	tang
cop	chop	same	shame	tank	thank	kin	king
hug	chug	hare	share	tick	thick	win	wing
hair	chair	save	shave	tin	thin	ton	tong
cart	chart	sell	shell	horn	thorn	son	song
		sift	shift			run	rung
		sip	ship			sun	sung
		sow	show			stun	stung
		hop	shop				
		sore	shore				
		sun	shun				

Other pairs of words may be presented that demonstrate contrast:

1. Between digraphs:

chat	that	
chin	thin	shin

chip		ship
chop		shop
chore		shore
chose	those	
chick	thick	
chink	think	
	thorn	shorn
	thank	shank
	thy	shy

2. Between voiced and unvoiced sounds:

this	thin
than	thank
though	thought

3. Between consonant digraphs and consonant clusters:

chap	clap	sham	slam	the	tree
chick	click	shack	slack	thick	trick
chip	clip	shave	slave	phone	prone
chop	crop	shed	sled		
cheek	creek	shell	spell	wing	wind
		shot	slot	hang	hand
		show	slow	rang	range
		shun	spun	lung	lunge
				sing	singe

Alphabet Street

Let children use the mock television set made out of a carton or painted sheet, (suggested on page A-17) to present consonant digraphs. In addition to presentations of the digraph letters together with objects whose names begin with the digraphs, as on *Sesame Street,* creative and imaginative children might like to try to produce programs with titles like "The Wonderful World of Letters" or "This is Your Life," for presentation to younger children. For example:

"Good afternoon, friends. Welcome to *This is Your Life.* Today our guests are Mr. C. and Mr. H. of the C & H Construction Company.

"You were both born at the end of Mar*ch* and met at the beginning of *ch*ildhood. You were together in s*ch*ool, where C did all the talking, while H never said anything. You began *h*igh school and *c*ollege separately, and then went into the army, where you were always found at the end of the line of mar*ch*.

"You became partners at the end of your hit*ch* in the army and tried to find a place in insurance and real estate, but these careers were not for you. You ended your sear*ch* when you formed your company and started the building of *ch*urches and *ch*apels. You also make smaller items such as *ch*airs, *ch*ains, *ch*ina, *ch*alk, *ch*ess sets, and *Ch*inese *ch*eckerboards. You have also gone into making foods such as *ch*eese, *ch*owder, *ch*ili, *ch*erry pie, *ch*ocolate, and *ch*icken *ch*ow mein. When asked whether you would ever dissolve your partnership, you have answered "No" because neither of you could produce these items alone. When you retire, however, we understand that you expect to end up on a ran*ch*. So here is a pair of leather *ch*aps for each of you to wear when you become ran*ch*ers. Cheerio.!"

Two stories, "Sheba Sheep" and "Chunky Chipmunk's Cherry Seed," by Blanche Boshinski, printed in *The Instructor,* February 1965 (page 29), emphasize words beginning with *sh* and *ch.* Stories like these could be read to or by children to increase their awareness of these sound-spelling relationships. A group might be encouraged to make up a story emphasizing other such sound-spelling relationships.

3.b) Recodes one-syllable words with consonant clusters

Consonant clusters consist of two or three adjacent consonant letters, each of which represents a consonant sound. Although each consonant sound is pronounced, in normal speech they are blended together to pronounce the word – hence the name "consonant blend."

Consonant clusters are found at the beginning or end of one-syllable words.

(1) Initial clusters may be grouped as follows:

(a) C or C digraph + *r*

brad
brag
bran
brass
brat
bred
brig
brim

crab
crag
cram
crack
crib
crop

drab
drag
dram
dreg
dress
drill
drip
drop
drug
drum

fret
frill
frog

grab
grid
grim
grip
grit

pram
press
prig
prim
prod
prom
prop

shred
shrub
shrug

track
trap
trill
trim
trip
trot
truck

throb
thrush

(b) C + *l*

black
bled
blot

clad
clam
clap
cliff
clip
clod
clog
clot
clock
class

flag
flap
flat
fleck
fled
flick
flip
flit
flock
flog
flop
floss
fluff

glad
glass
gloss
glob
glum

plan
plod
plop
plot
pluck
plug
plum
plus

(c) *s* + C

scab
scan
scat
scoff
scot
scuff

skid
skiff
skill
skim
skin
skip

slab
slack
slam
slap
slat
sled

slop
slot
slug
slum

smack
smell
smog
smug

snag
snap
sniff
snip
snob
snub

spank
spat
spell
spick (and span)
spill
spin

scull
scum

skit
skull

slick
slid
slim
slip
slit

stack
staff
stag
stem
step
stick
stiff
still
stock
stop
stuff

swab
swag
swam
swat
swell
swim

snuff
snug

spit
spot
spun

(d) *qu-, dw-, tw-, wh-*

quick
quill
quit

dwarf
dwell

twig
twin
twist

Words spelled with *qu* are derived from a number of sources. From French and Latin come words like *quarter, questions, quiet,* and *quote. Quinine* and *quirt* are of Spanish origin. A number of *qu* spellings are a result of the Norman Conquest. As French became the written language in England, some Old English words like *cwacian, cwēn,* and *cwic* were transformed by French scholars; and we now have *quake, queen,* and *quick.* The original Old English spelling *cw* indicates the blend of two consonant sounds that is now represented by *qu.*

A number of words illustrate the spelling *wh* in initial position representing the unvoiced aspirated /hw/ sound.

whack
whale
wham
wharf
what
wheat
wheel

wheeze
whelk
whelp
when
where
whet
which

whiff
while
whim
whine
whip
whirl
white

why

whisker
whisper
whistle
whittle
whopper

Most of these words are derived from Old English words whose spelling actually reflected their pronunciation. Old English *hwael, hwerf, hwēol, hwelp, hwīt,* and *hwȳ* became the Middle English and modern *whale, wharf, wheel, whelp, white,* and *why.* Many speakers, however, do not distinguish /hw/ from /w/; and many children will not be able to tell the difference. For them, *witch* and *which* will be homophones.

(c) 3 C letters that equal 3 sounds

In the words in this group, three separate consonant sounds are blended.

scrap
scrim
script
scrub
splash
split
splint
sprit
spring
sprint
squab
squad
squash
squat
strap
stress
strip
struck
strut

(2) Final clusters

(a) CC

Most of the words in this group end in a single vowel letter followed by two consonant letters. Pronunciation of the vowel sounds in these words is the same as in words of the CVC pattern or words ending in doubled consonant letters, with the exceptions noted in section (c) below.

fat	fact
net	nest
hill	hilt
pun	punt

One-syllable words ending in consonant clusters are listed below.

act
fact
pact
tact
duct

aft
daft
raft
shaft
eft
deft
heft
left
gift
lift
rift
sift
shift
loft
soft
tuft

elf
pelf
self
shelf
golf
gulf

elk
whelk
ilk
bilk
milk
silk
bulk
hulk
sulk

elm
helm

alp
scalp
help
kelp
whelp
gulp
pulp

belt
melt
pelt
gilt
hilt
kilt
lilt
silt
stilt
tilt
wilt

camp
damp
lamp
ramp
scamp
stamp
vamp
hemp
imp
blimp
gimp
limp
romp
bump
dump
hump
lump
mumps
pump
stump
trump

and
band
hand
land
sand
stand
strand

bank
crank
dank
drank
blank
lank
rank
sank
spank
tank
ink
brink
drink
link
mink
pink
rink
sink
slink
wink
bunk
dunk
hunk
sunk
trunk

ant
pant
rant
bent
dent
lent
pent
rent
sent
tent
hint
lint
mint
splint
sprint
tint
font
bunt
hunt
punt
runt
stunt

Manx
minx
Bronx
lynx

apt
rapt
kept
opt

ask
bask
cask
mask
task
desk
disk (or disc)
risk
dusk
husk
musk
rusk
tusk
whisk

asp
clasp
gasp
hasp
rasp
crisp
lisp
wisp

last
mast
past
best
lest
nest
pest
rest
test
west
fist
gist
grist
list
mist
wrist
bust
crust
dust
gust
must
rust
trust
cyst

next
text
twixt

Final blends of three consonant sounds are rare: *mulct, tempt, whilst.*

(b) C + C digraph

A few common words and proper names end in a consonant letter followed by a consonant digraph:

filch
gulch
mulch

inch
cinch
pinch
winch
bunch
crunch

Ralph

triumph
humph

lunch
munch
punch

Walsh
Welsh

health
wealth
stealth

width
breadth

month
ninth

(c) *-ald, -alt, -ild, -ind, -old, -ost*

It was noted above that the vowel sound is usually the short vowel of phonics in words spelled with a single vowel letter followed by a consonant cluster. The exceptions to this generalization are listed in this section.

The simple vowel /ɔ/ does not fall into any of the phonics categories of long, short, or diphthong vowels. It has already been noted in words ending in *-all,* such as *ball.* It is also found in words ending in *-ald* and *-alt.*

bald
scald

halt
malt
salt

Words ending in *-ild* and *-ind* have the vowel sound /ay/ heard in *bite:*

child
mild
wild

bind
find
kind
mind
rind
wind (verb)

Words ending in *-old* have the vowel sound /ow/:

bold
cold
fold
gold

hold
mold
sold
told

The vowel sound of words ending in *-ost* may be either /ɔ/ or /ow/:

/ɔ/	/ow/
cost	ghost
frost	most
lost	host
	post

(d) CC*e*

A final *e* may follow a consonant cluster. When the second letter of the cluster is *c* or *g,* the final *e* signals that these letters represent the /s/ and /j/ phonemes:

bilge
bulge

dance
lance
stance
hence
pence
mince
since
wince
once
dunce

change
mange
grange
range
strange
hinge
singe
tinge
cringe
fringe
lunge
plunge

false
else
pulse

ACTIVITIES

The consonant clusters are better taught in the context of words than in isolation, because there is a tendency to distort the blended sounds when they are uttered in isolation. Words with beginning consonant clusters may be contrasted with words beginning with single consonant letters. Examples from the following lists may be put on the chalkboard and children asked to read the words in the first two columns. Then they are asked to listen for the blending of the consonant sounds as the teacher and children read the words in the third column.

It is better to introduce only a few consonant clusters at a time, as presenting too many at once may be confusing.

bag	rag	brag
ban	ran	bran
bat	rat	brat
bed	red	bred
big	rig	brig
dill	rill	drill
dip	rip	drip
dug	rug	drug
fill	rill	frill
pod	rod	prod
tack	rack	track
tap	rap	trap
till	rill	trill
Tim	rim	trim
tip	rip	trip
tot	rot	trot
tuck	ruck	truck
shed	red	shred
dell	well	dwell
tin	win	twin

back	lack	black
bed	led	bled
cap	lap	clap
cot	lot	clot
cock	lock	clock
fed	led	fled
fit	lit	flit
pop	lop	plop
pot	lot	plot
pug	lug	plug

sat	cat	scat
sill	kill	skill
sin	kin	skin
sit	kit	skit
sack	lack	slack
sap	lap	slap
sick	lick	slick
sip	lip	slip
sit	lit	slit
sag	nag	snag
sap	nap	snap
sip	nip	snip
sat	pat	spat
sick	pick	spick
sill	pill	spill
sin	pin	spin
sun	pun	spun
sack	tack	stack
sick	tick	stick
sill	till	still
sock	tock	stock
sop	top	stop
sell	well	swell

If children have difficulty hearing the blending of the two consonant sounds, the use of the devices pictured on page A-22 may help them to blend the sounds as the letters appear one-by-one.

Words such as the following with the same vowel letters and final consonant letters and different beginning clusters may be contrasted:

brain
drain
grain
plain
sprain
stain
strain
train

cream
dream
gleam
steam
scream
stream

bleat
cleat
pleat
treat

crime
grime
prime
slime

fleet
greet
skeet
sleet
street
sweet

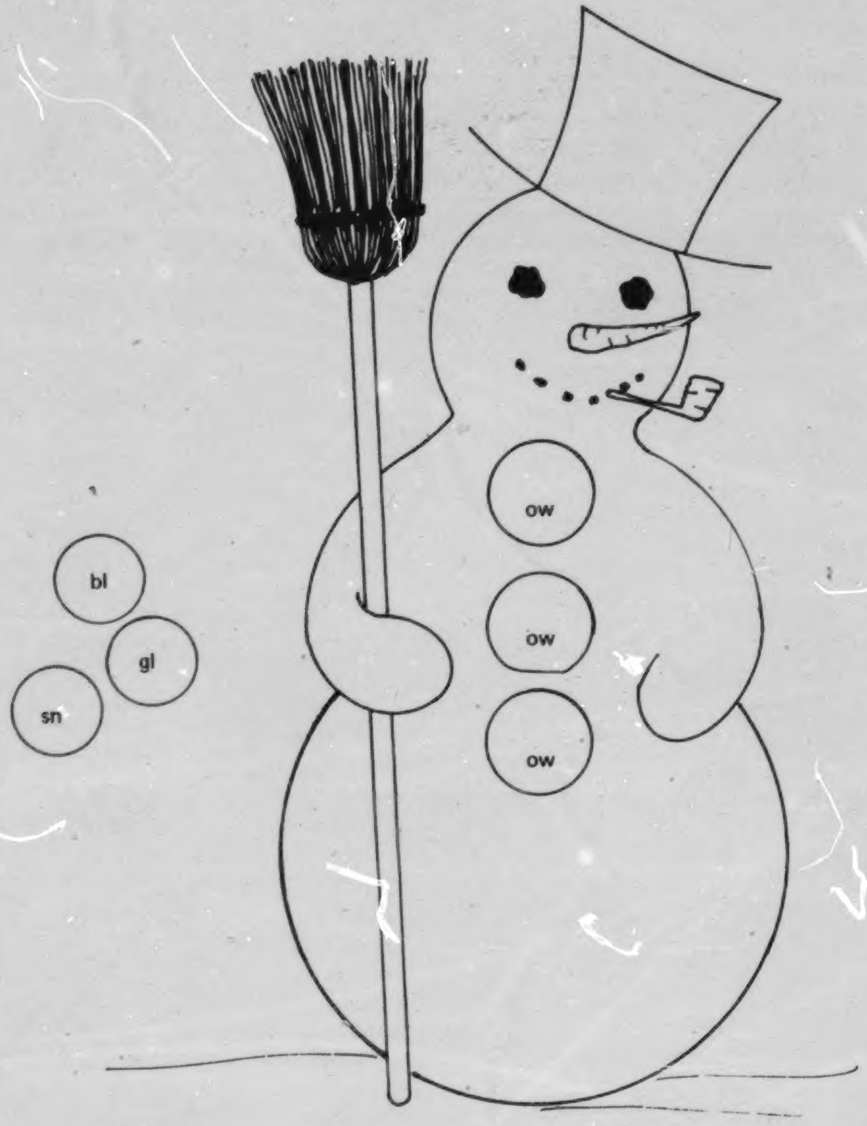
flail
frail
grail
quail
snail
trail

Hear and Write

The class may be divided into teams. The teacher or a pupil pronounces a word such as *strike.* A member from each team writes on the chalkboard the three letters with which the word begins, and the first child to write them correctly scores a point. Other games and activities described in section 3 can be adapted to teaching consonant clusters.

If it is desired to present a particular pattern in column form as illustrated on page A-24 a little seasonal variation may add interest:

> The North Wind doth blow,
> And we shall have snow . . .



Words beginning with the /hw/ sounds may be contrasted with words beginning with the single sound /w/:

watt	what
weather	whether
went	when
wear	where
with	whip

If children do not hear the difference between /w/ and /hw/, however, it is not necessary to make an issue of it, as such discrimination is not essential to recognizing words that begin with *wh*.

Final Clusters

Children may be asked to look at and listen to the endings of words with final single consonant letters, then to words in which the final consonant cluster represents a blend:

ram	rap	ramp
ban	bad	band
pan	pat	pant
bun	but	bunt
run	rut	runt

Words with final consonant clusters may be presented in contrast to words ending in doubled C letters:

sell	self	
gull	gulf	gulp
mill	milk	
sill	silk	silt
bell	belt	
hill	hilt	
still	stilt	
till	tilt	
will	wilt	

Words ending in *-ld* and *-lt* in which the letter ***a*** represents the phoneme /ɔ/ may be contrasted with words in which ***a*** represents /æ/ and compared with words ending in *-all*, *-aw*, and *-awl:*

/æ/	/ɔ/	/ɔ/	/ɔ/	/ɔ/
bat	ball	bald		bawl
cat	call	scald		caw
hat	hall		halt	haw
mat	mall		malt	maw
sat			salt	saw
fat	fall		false	fawn

Similarly, the words ending in *-ild* and *-ind* may be presented in contrast to words with the simple vowel /i/:

/i/	/ay/	/i/	/ay/
chill	child	bin	bind
mill	mild	fin	find
will	wild	kin	kind
		mint	mind
		Rin Tin Tin	rind
		win	wind

3.c) Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel/ phoneme pattern represented by:

(1) CV or CCV

These words begin with a single consonant letter, a consonant digraph, or a consonant cluster and end in a single vowel letter *e, y,* or *o.* This pattern is important not only because the words are in common use in children's vocabularies and in easy reading materials, but also because in both spelling and pronunciation these words resemble the open syllables of multisyllabic words. They can therefore serve as a clue to pronunciation of longer words.

/iy/	/ay/	/ow/
e	y	o
be	by	go
he	my	lo
me	cry	no
she	dry	so
the (in isolation and before vowels; before consonants it is /thə/)	fly fry ply	fro
we	pry	
	shy	
	sky	
	sly	
	spy	
	spry	
	thy	
	try	
	why	

Ordinarily, English words do not end in the single vowel letter *u.* The few examples are borrowed from another language (*gnu*) or shortened forms (*flu* or the nickname *Stu*).

A few colloquial words end in *a* representing the sound /a/: *ha, la, ma, pa.*

ACTIVITIES

The words spelled with a consonant letter or consonant digraph plus *e* or *o* may be contrasted with similar words of the CVC pattern:

bet	be	got	go
hen	he	lot	lo
men	me	not	no
shed	she		
then	the		
wet	we		

Making a Kite

Let each child make a kite out of construction paper and decorate it. Ask him to read the following verse and pick out the words that have the same vowel sound as in *kite*. The child prints each word he can read on a slip of paper and attaches it to the tail of the kite.

I am a kite.
See me fly
High up in the sky.

(2) CV + *e* or *y*

These two-vowel letter combinations representing vowel diphthongs usually appear in final position only, except when suffixes have been added:

/ey/			/ay/	
ay		ey	ie	ye
bay	bray	hey	die	dye
day	clay	grey	hie	lye
gay	dray	prey	lie	rye
hay	flay	they	pie	stye
lay	fray	whey	tie	good-bye
may	gray		vie	
nay	play			uy
pay	pray			
ray	quay			buy
say	slay			guy
way	splay			
	spray			
	stay			
	stray			
	sway			
	tray			

/ow/	/uw/ or /yuw/	/ɔy/
oe	ue	oy
doe	blue	boy
foe	cue	coy
floe	clue	joy
hoe	due	Roy
Joe	flue	soy
roe	glue	toy
toe	hue	cloy
woe	rue	ploy
	sue	Troy
	true	

3.d) Recodes two-syllable words ending in y

In the previous section were listed one-syllable words like *by* and *dye*, in which the final *y* or *ye* represented /ay/. In two-syllable words like those listed below, the final *y*, *ey*, or *ie* represents a vowel sound close to the /iy/ of *bee* (dictionary pronunciation keys give it as either /i/ or /ē/). A number of common words and nicknames ending in *y* are in the oral vocabularies of young children and are found in easy reading materials:

baby
candy
city
daddy
dirty
fluffy
bunny

happy
hobby
kitty
mommy
many
pony
puppy

Betty
Bobby
Billy
Danny
Mary
Jimmy
Teddy

A few words end in *ey* and *ie*:

chimney
donkey
honey
money
monkey
turkey
valley

birdie
cookie (or cooky)
doggie (or doggy)
Willie

ACTIVITIES:

The difference in vowel sound represented by *y* at the end of one-syllable words and at the end of two-syllable words may be illustrated by presenting contrasting pairs such as the following:

by	baby	lie		Willie
dye	candy, daddy			
my	mommy			
dry	laundry	they	key	donkey, monkey
try	pantry			

Words ending in *y* could be used as examples in introducing words of more than one syllable (see section *5*.)

3.e) Recodes words with V letter followed by *r*.

The phoneme /r/, although grouped with the consonants, is called a "semivowel"; because uttering it does not involve the constriction or stoppage of the breath stream that produces other consonant sounds. The /r/ combines with the preceding vowel sound to produce a sound that differs from the usual /vowel-consonant/ sound sequences. These sounds are designated diphthongs or triphthongs. Some examples are:

Diphthongs with glide to /r/		**Triphthongs (diphthongs followed by /r/):**			
/ir/	mirror	/irh/	dear		
/er/	merry	/ehr/	bear, Mary		
/ær/	marry	/æwr/	flour		
/ɨr/	bird	/ɨhr/	furred		
/ər/	hurry	/əhr/	worry		
/ar/	cart	/ahr/	starry	/ayr/	fire
/ur/	jury	/uhr/	poor, Jewry	/yur/	cure
/or/	fort, story	/ohr/	born, wore		

Pronunciation of these words varies from dialect to dialect and from speaker to speaker. In parts of New England and the south, for example, the /r/ is not heard at all. Among speakers of the same dialect, *fire* many be pronounced /fayr/ or /far/. *Our* varies between /awr/, /æ wr/ and /ar/. *Flour* and *flower* may be /flawər/ or /flar/ or /flahr/. Pronunciation also varies in speech of the same speaker, depending on the degree of formality of the utterance and on whether a word is being uttered in isolation or as part of a running stream of speech. The pronunciation of *for*, for example, may vary from /fohr/ to /fr/, /f/, /fir/, or /f ə/, depending on whether it is uttered in isolation or in such contexts as "for instance," "for a while," or "for me."

In a general way, the spellings of words containing vowel letters followed by *r* are an indication of the vowel sounds, as indicated in the following tables.

VC	Vr	Vr + C or C digraph		Vre	Vrr	VrV
		1 syllable	more than 1 syllable			
aC /æ/	ar /ar/	arC /ar/	arC /ar/	are /ehr/	arr /ær/	arV /ær/
at		arc, ark, arm, art	arctic, argue, armor		arrow	Arab, arid
			army, article, artist			
bat	bar	barb, bard, bark	bargain, barter,	bare	barracuda, barrel	baron, baritone
		barge	Bartholomew		barren, barrier	
cat	car	card, carp, cart	carnival, carpenter	care	carrousel	caramel, carat
			carpet, cartoon		carrot, carry	caravan, carol
chat	char	charm, charge, chart	Charlotte, charter			character,
		Charles				charity
dad		dark, darn, dart	darling, radar	dare		
fat	far	farm, farce	farther, Fargo	fare	farrier, farrow	faraday
gap	gar	garb	garbage, garden,	flare		
			garment, garnet, cigar	glare	garret, garrison	garish,
hat		hard, hark, harm	harmony, harness	hare	harrowing, Harry	Harold
		harp	harpoon, harvest			
jam	jar		jargon, jardiniere			
lap		lard, large, lark	larceny, larva			lariat, larynx
			alarm			Polaris
mat	mar	march, mark, marsh	market, remark	mare	marry, marrow	mariner
		mart, Mars	margin, marble			
nap			narcissus, narcotic		narrative, narrow	
pat	par	park, part, parch	parka, party, parcel	pare	parrot, parry	Paris, parallel,
			pardon, particle			paradise, parakeet
			parsley, parsnip			paragraph
sat			sardine, sarcasm			Saratoga
			quasar			Saracen
scan	scar	scarf	scarlet	scare		
shad		shark, sharp		share		
span	spar	spark, sparse	sparkle, Spartan	spare	sparrow	
stab	star	starch, start	starling, startle	stare		
tan	tar	tarn, tart	tardy, target, tartar			
			tarnish, tarpaulin	tare	tarry, tarragon	tariff
erC /e/	er /ər/	erC /ər/	erC /ər/	ere /ihr/	err /er/	erV /er/
Ed			ermine, inert, modern		errand, error	Erin
bed		berth, iceberg	Bermuda, berserk,		berry	beryl
			October			
check					cherry	cherish, cherub
clef		clerk	clergy			clerical
fed		fern	ferment, inferno	interfere	ferry, Ferris	
			fertile, fervor, wafer		ferric	
gem		germ	German, germinate		Gerry	Gerald
			integer			
hen	her	herb, herd	Hercules, hermit	here	herring	herald, heresy
			herbivorous			heritage, heron
jet		jerk	jersey		jerry	Jeremiah
met		merge	mermaid, merchandise	mere	merry	merit
			mercury, mercy			
pet	per	perk, perch, pert	perhaps, person			
set		serf, serve	sermon, serpent,	sere	serried	seraph, serenade
			servant, desert			
ten		term, tern, terse	terminal, termite		terry, terror	
			enter, inter		terrapin, terrace	
vet		Verb, verse, verge	vermin, vertical			very, verify
			versatile, vertebra			
			Denver			

VC	Vr	Vr + C or C digraph		Vre	Vrr	VrV
		1 syllable	more than 1 syllable			
iC /i/	ir /ɚ/	irC /ɚ/	irC /ɚ/	ire /ayr/	irr /ir/ or /ɚ/	irV /ayr/ or /ir/
in		irk		ire	irritate, irrigate	iris, irate, iron, Irish
bin		bird, birch, birth				
			circle, circus		cirrus	
din		dirt, dirge, dirk		dire		
fin	fir	firm, first	firmament	fire		
gill		girl, girt, girth	girder, girdle			
mid		mirth		mire	mirror	miracle
sit	sir		sirloin	sire		siren, Sirius
skiff		skirl, skirt	skirmish			
spin				spire		spiral, spirit
stiff	stir				stirrup	
squid		squirm, squirt		squire	squirrel	
tin				tire		tirade
vim			virtue, Virginia			vireo, virile virus
oC /a/	or /ohr/	orC /or/or /ohr/	orC /or/ or /ohr/	ore /ohr/	orr /ahr/	orV /ahr/ or /ohr/
ox	or	orb	order, orchard, organ orbit, orchestra	ore		oral, Orient orange, Oregon
bon		born	border	bore	borrow	boric, boreal
cot		cord, cork, corn corpse	corner, cornet, acorn corpuscle, cormorant	core	correspond correlate, corridor	coral, coronet coronary
fox	for	ford, forge, form, fork, force, fort	formal, formula, fortitude, fortunate	fore		forest, foreign foray
got		gorge, gorse	Gordon, gorgeous	gore		gory
hot		horn, horde, horse	hornet, horticulture		horrid, horror	horizontal, horoscope
lot		lord		lore		loran
mop		morgue, morn, Morse	morbid, Mormon, morsel morning, mortal, mortar	more	morris, morrow	moral, moron
not	nor	north, Norse	Nordic, normal, northern			
pot		porch, pork, port	porcelain, porcupine porpoise, portion	pore	porridge	
sod		sort	sorcery, sordid, resort	sore	sorrel, sorry	
scot		scorch, scorn	scorpion, ascorbic	score		
spot		sport		spore		
stop		stork, storm	restore	store		story
top		torch, torte, torn	torment, tornado, torso torpedo, tortoise	tore tore	torrent, torrid	toreador, Tory

VC	Vr	Vr + C or C digraph 1 syllable	 more than 1 syllable	Vre	Vrr	VrV
uC /ə/	ur /ɚ/	urC /ɚ/	urC /ɚ/	ure /yur/	urr /ɚ/ or /ər/	urV /yur/
		urge, urn	urchin, Ursa, urban Saturday, Saturn			Ural, uranium Uranus
but	burr	burn, burl, burst	burden, burnish hamburger		burrow	bureau
cut	cur	curb, curd, curl	curdle, curfew, occur cursive, curtain,	cure	curry, current currant	curate, curio curious
chum		church, churl, churn				
fun	fur	furl, furze	furbelow, furlong furnace, furniture further, furtive		furrow, furry	furious, fury furor
hut		hurl, hurt	hurdle, hurtle		hurrah, hurry hurricane	Huron
mud		murk	murder, murmur, Murphy	immure	murrain, Murray	mural
nut		nurse	nursery, nurture			
pun	purr	purge, purl	purchase, purloin purple, purpose, pursue	pure		puree, purify
spun	spur	spurn, spurt				spurious
tub		turf, turn	turban, turbine, turkey turtle, turpentine turquoise		turret	tureen
	yr /ɚ/		yrC /ɚ/	yre /ayr/	yrr /ir/	yrV /ayr/ or /ir/
				byre		Byron
			gyrfalcon	gyre		gyrate, gyrene gyroscope
				lyre		Lyra, lyric
	myrrh		myrmidon, Myrna, myrtle			Myra, myriad
			satyr	McIntyre		tyrant, tyro styrofoam
				pyre	pyrrhic	pyramid, Pyrex pyrite, pyrotechnic Syria, syrup

All words with *r* do not fit the above patterns. Some which do not are:

			lizard, wizard			Mary
		quart, quartz	quarter		quarrel, quarry	
	war	ward, warm, wart	wardrobe, backward, toward	there		
			sergeant	where		
				were		
		word, worm, world worse	worship		worry	bury, jury

Words with two initial or medial vowel letters followed by *r* may also be grouped.

/ehr/	/ihr/	/ɨr/	/ohr/	/æwr/	/uhr/
air	beard	early	oar	our	boor
chair	dear	earn	boar	flour	moor
fair	ear	earth	board	hour	poor
fairy	fear	heard	coarse	scour	
hair	gear	learn	hoard	sour	tour
lair	hear	pearl	hoary		courier
pair	near	search	roar		tournament
prairie	rear		soar		tourmaline
	shear	courage			
	tear	courteous			
bear	appear	flourish	door		
pear	dreary	journal	floor		
tear	weary	journey			
wear		nourish	course		
	eerie	scourge	court		
aerate	beer		pour		
aerial	cheer		gourd		
aerie	deer		mourn		
aero	jeer				
	leer		aura		
	peer		aural		
	queer		aureole		
	seer		auricle		
	steer		dinosaur		
	veer		saurian		
			Taurus		
	bier				
	fierce				
	pier				
	pierce				
	tier				

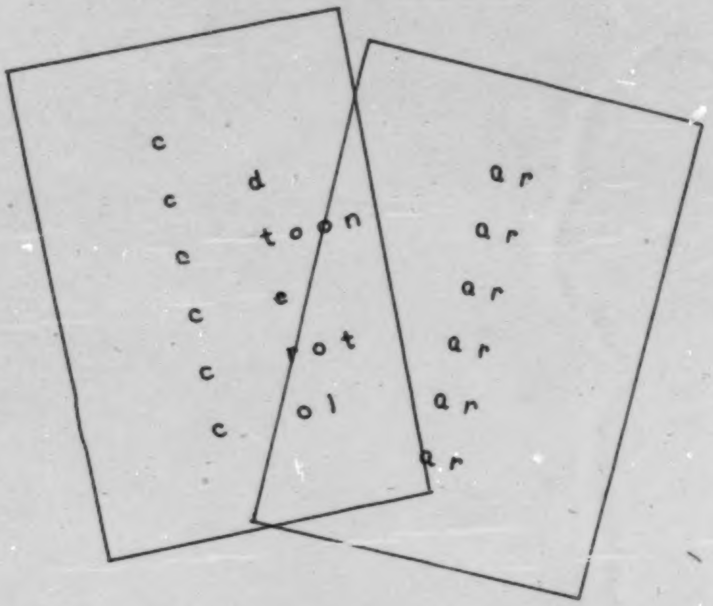
It is recognized that the pronunciation of words with a vowel followed by /r/ will vary not only from speaker to speaker but also according to changes in stress patterns caused by addition of suffixes and to whether the combination itself is a prefix or a suffix. It is also recognized that to some teachers, all of the distinctions in vowel sounds indicated above may not be evident. They are listed in this way only to demonstrate that the variations in pronunciation patterns are indicated fairly reliably by contrasts in the spelling patterns, and therefore these spelling patterns can be a useful guide to recognizing such words.

ACTIVITIES

Most children will probably not have difficulty with words that contain *r* following a vowel letter. Such words as *her, car, March, star, for,* and *hurt* are among the most common words in children's oral vocabularies as well as in easy reading materials. Children learn them from observing as the teacher writes them on experience charts and discusses them as he writes, or as he helps a child write original stories. Some children will quickly make the association between the vowel sounds and the pattern of letters and will be able to apply this learning to other words that are similar, since the sound-spelling relationships are fairly consistent.

For children who need more practice and review, it would be useful to have them keep their own lists of words that they need in their reading and writing. Each child's list would be personal and different from those of other children. The words could be listed according to the patterns in order to make more evident the association between the written word and the sounds it represents.

For further practice, the teacher could use a device similar to that shown on page A-24 . A combination such as *ar* could be listed a number of times on a plastic sheet, then covered with an overlay to show the different patterns, to stimulate discussion and discovery of generalizations concerning the pronunciation.



Older children may enjoy making up nonsense sentences containing words in a particular pattern and trying to complete each other's sentences:

> When I *squirted* the *squirrel* with water, it made him *squirm*.
>
> When the *hurricane* hit Lake *Huron* and began to *hurl* rocks in the air, I had to *hurry* home, so I wouldn't get *hurt*.

3.f) Recodes words with *c* or *g* followed by *e, i,* or *y*.

In this category are words having the phoneme /s/ spelled by the letter *c* and the phoneme /j/ spelled by the letter *g*. These letters may occur in initial, medial, or final position.

cedar
cell
cellar
cent
center

decent
descend
cancel
receive

ace
lace
space
nice
niece
ice
dice
spice
truce

cider
cigar
cinder
city
cinema
cinch

pencil
penicillin
acid

cycle
cyst
cylinder
cynic

fancy
icy
Lucy

gelatin
gem
gene
genic
Gemini
general
genial
genius
gentle
geode
geography
gerbil
germinate
Germany

Argentina
dungeon
danger

age
cage
page
rage
sage
stage
huge

barge
dirge
forge
gouge
change
range
strange

giant
ginger
giraffe

margin
longitude
regime
regiment
magic
origin
Sagittarius

fungi
magi

gypsy
gypsum
gyrate

dingy
mangy

In most words beginning with *gi,* the *g* represents the phoneme /g/:

gibbon
giddy
gift
giggle
gild
gill
gimlet
girl
give

In words consisting of a base word ending in the *ng* digraph plus the suffix *er,* the *ng* represents the nasal phoneme /ŋ/; and the addition of *-er* does not affect pronunciation: *hang – hanger.*

ACTIVITIES

Some authorities recommend teaching these words with *c*-/s/ and *g*-/j/ correspondences right along with words having the more usual *c*-/k/ and *g*-/g/ correspondences. The teacher would have to base a decision in this respect on his observation of how well a particular child could learn both patterns at the same time.

Some words could be taught in contrasting pairs:

rag – rage
sag – sage
stag – stage
hug – huge

In these words, the final *e* signals both a change in vowel and in final consonant sound. In the following three pairs, the final *e* signals a change from a final single consonant sound /ŋ/ to a blend of /n/ and /j/.

lung – lunge
rang – range
sing – singe

3.g) Recodes words with letters which represent no sound

There are a number of reasons for the occurrence of words with "silent" letters in English. Among such words are a number from Old English, Scandinavian, and Germanic languages whose spelling includes a letter which at one time represented a pronounced consonant. Eventually, as pronunciation changed over the years, the pronunciation of the consonant sound was dropped from speech. As writing changes more slowly than speech, however, the silent letter remains in written words like *gnash, knife, wrap, thought,* and *walk,* to plague those who would read and spell English!

English has borrowed extensively from other languages – primarily from Latin, Danish, and French; later from Greek, Italian, Spanish, Dutch, and other languages. In borrowing, the tendency was to adapt the pronunciation to the phonemic system of English while retaining the spelling of the language of origin. As a result, we have many words in which the spelling does not match the pronunciation, letter for phoneme. The spelling of *science,* for example, reveals its Latin origin. Also notable are words, particularly scientific terms, borrowed or coined from Greek forms. Initial combinations like /pn/, /ps/, /pt/, and /mn/ are possible in Greek pronunciation but not in English. Thus when words beginning with these sounds were adopted into English, the pronunciation of the first phoneme was dropped, but the letter was retained in spelling (*pneumonia, psalm, pterodactyl, mnemonic*).

Some words with silent letters reveal the influence of French after the Norman Conquest. Thus the Middle English *rime* and *gessen* acquired French spellings, *rhyme* and *guess.* French influence is also responsible for the insertion of *b* into *debt* and *doubt.*

The principal patterns which include silent letters are listed below:

b		c	d	g	
Medial	Final	Medial	Medial	Initial	Medial
debt	bomb	scene	bridge	gnarled	align
doubt	climb	scent	budge	gnash	malign
subtle	dumb	science	budget	gnat	resign
	lamb	descent	dodge	gnaw	sign
	limb	science	edge		
	numb	scissors	fudge		
	thumb		hedge		
			pudgy		

		h		
Initial	Medial		Medial	Final
honest	chasm	school	ghost	monarch
hour	chaos	ache	ghoul	patriarch
	character	architect	ghastly	
	chemistry	orchestra	gherkin	
	choir	orchid	ghetto	
	chorus	anchor		
	Christmas		rhapsody	
	chromosome		rheumatic	
	chronic		rhetoric	
	chronology		rhinoceros	
	chrysalis		rhubarb	
	chrysanthemum			

gh

Medial

aught
caught
daughter
fraught
haughty
naught
naughty
taught

blight
bright
fight
flight
knight
light
might
night
right
slight
sight
tight

Medial

height
sleight
eight

bought
brought
fought
ought
sought
thought
wrought

Final

neigh
weigh
sleigh
bough
dough
though
through

k

Initial

knack
knave
knapsack
knead
knee
kneel
knell
knew
knife
knit
knight
knob
knock
knot
know
knowledge
knuckle

l

Medial

calf
half

balk
chalk
stalk
talk
walk
yolk

could
should
would

n

Final

autumn
column
condemn
hymn
solemn

p

Initial

psalm
pseudo-
psychic
psychology

pterodactyl
ptomaine

pneumatic
pneumonia

s

Medial

aisle
isle
island

t

Medial

catch
patch
watch
wretch
itch
pitch
witch

u

Medial

guard
guess
guest
guide
guild
guile
guilt
guise

Medial

quay
queue
unique
pique

w

Initial

wrack
wraith
wrangle
wrap
wrath
wreak
wreath
wreck
wren
wrench
wrestle

wretch
wriggle
wring
wrinkle
wrist
writ
write
writhe
wrong
wrought
wry

who
whole
wholly
whom
whose

There is a morphemic basis for including final silent letters in the spelling of certain words. On this subject, Sluter commented that omitting the final *b* of *bomb* or the final *n* of *autumn* would have the effect of concealing their relationship with *bombard* and *autumnal.*

> For our English spelling, because of the particular sound structure of our language, must play a difficult double role. It must give some reflection not only of the *sounds* but also of the *morphemes,* the units of meaning, of our language . . .[1]

This double role can cause difficulty in reading English, because of the shifting of stress as affixes are added, with an accompanying shift in vowel sounds.

ACTIVITIES

As words with silent letters follow definite patterns, they may be presented through the use of various devices and activities suggested previously in section 3, such as *Climb Down the Ladder.* The part of the word with the silent letter may be listed a number of times and varying combinations added to it to form words. For older children who are acquainted with derivational suffixes, it may be possible to teach the root form containing the silent letter along with the derived form in which the letter represents a sound:

bomb	bombard
sign	signal
malign	malignant
resign	resignation
autumn	autumnal
column	columnar
condemn	condemnation
hymn	hymnal
solemn	solemnity

Older children may also be interested in the reasons for these unusual spellings and may be encouraged to look up and report to the class the origins of such words.

---

[1] Sir Archibald Sluter, "A Defense of English Spelling," *A Linguistic Reader,* ed. Graham Wilson (New York: Harper & Row, 1967), p. 219.

3.h) Recode frequently used words which do not conform to sound-spelling patterns

As he learns common spelling patterns of written English words and how they relate to spoken words, a child needs also to realize that a large number of common one-syllable words differ in pronunciation from what their spelling would suggest. The most frequently used words will probably be learned through various language experience activities and reading of easy books before the patterns are presented. Others will have to be learned as exceptions as sound-spelling patterns are taught. Some common words which do not conform to the patterns discussed in this section are given below.

(1) CVC

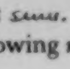
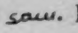
of, wad, was, son, ton, won, put.
Except for *gas* words ending in *-as* and *-is* have the final phoneme /z/: *as, is, has, his, was.*

(2) CVC + *e*

Because the letter *v* never appears in final position in English spelling, we have the spelling *ve* regardless of the vowel sound: *have, give, live, dove, love, glove, move, prove, shove.*

Other exceptions: *come, done, gone, none, some, lose, whose, sure*

Teachers (and some children) may be interested in the origin of these spellings. According to Sluter, they resulted from efforts to improve the legibility of medieval writing, in which the similarity of *u* to *v, m,* and *n* caused confusion.

> The word *some,* which was spelled *sum* in Old English script . . . looked something like this: . It became the practice to close the top of the *u* in order to mark the vowel letter off from a following *m, n,* or *v*: . But this in effect makes an *o* of the *u* . . .[2]

(3) **CV + doubled C letters**
bass (voice), *full, pull, gross, doll, shall, watt*

(4) **CVVC**
been, sieve, friend, said, plaid, again, broad, does, laugh, gauge, blood, flood, build, guild.

(5) **C digraphs**
push, bush, wash, what, song, long, among

(6) **Final consonant clusters**
pint, ninth, wolf, comb,
-ild: gild
-ind: wind (air)
+ e: once

(7) **CV or CCV**
do, to, who
eye, says, quay, key, shoe, sew, view, you

---

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 221.

(8) V + *r*

quart, quartz, scarce, war, ward, warm, wart, word, worm, world, worse, worst, there, where, were, heart, hearth, heir, their, weird

ACTIVITIES

As these words will have to be learned as sight words, the games and activities suggested in section 1 may be used.

After all of the spelling patterns in section 3 have been presented, children may enjoy working the puzzles which have appeared in such publications as *The Instructor, The Grade Teacher,* and *Jack and Jill* under the title of "Word Trip," "Stepping Stones," or "Ladder Puzzle." Older children with word recognition problems might enjoy making up such puzzles and, after checking their definitions with the teacher, helping younger children to solve them.

4. Uses structural clues to word recognition

a) Decodes compound words

Once a child has begun to recognize one-syllable word patterns, he should be ready to begin recognizing compound words made up of short words he has already learned. Pronunciation of the most familiar compounds does not vary from the pronunciation of the component words. Some compound words like *breakfast* change the pronunciation of one of the component words. Spelling of one of the elements may also vary, as in *shepherd.*

The most difficult compound words are those in which meaning is not as evident from the meaning of the component words. Many of these are the structure or function words like *nevertheless*, which are discussed in section 8.c).

Compound words containing hyphens include such familiar words as *merry-go-round, good-by* or *good-bye, blast-off,* and words for numerals above twenty.

There are a number of compound words in which the last letter of the first word and the first letter of the second word appear at first glance to be a consonant digraph. There are also some words containing consonant digraphs which may at first glance appear to be compound words. Examples of both kinds are given:

compound word	**consonant digraph**
haphazard	Stephen
anthill	anthem
pothole	rather
masthead	heather
	heathen

To avoid difficulty with such words, children need to know that the meaning of a compound word is derived from the meanings of the two component words. If puzzled by such words, they need to consider the alternate pronunciations, the context, and the meanings of what appear to be two words like "ant" and "hem" to see whether they would be combined in a meaningful compound word. Finally, there is always the dictionary to turn to for clarification.

ACTIVITIES

It is advisable to begin with compound words likely to be in primary children's vocabularies, such as:

airplane
airport
afternoon
barefoot
baseball
birthday
beehive
birdbath
bookcase
blowout
classroom
clubhouse
countdown
crossword
daytime
doghouse
downstairs
evergreen
everything
fireplace
flagpole
flashlight
football
grandfather
grandmother
grandstand
grasshopper
groundhog
horseshoe
lighthouse
lunchroom
mailbox
mailman
newspaper
notebook
pancake
playground
ponytail
railroad
raincoat
rowboat
sailboat
sandbox
shortstop
sidewalk
snowman
stepladder
toothbrush
upstairs
windshield

In presenting the idea of compound words, the teacher may list the component words in two columns on the chalkboard and have the children read them aloud. Then he may combine them in a third column, have the compound word read aloud, and discuss its meaning. Children may do the same kind of activity on paper, writing the compound word on a blank line in the third column.

after noon ____________________

air plane ____________________

bare foot ____________________

To provide a more advanced task, the order of the second list of words may be changed, so that the child looks for the appropriate word and writes it beside the first word to form a meaningful compound.

base ________________________ case

day ________________________ pole

grand ________________________ ball

book ________________________ father

flag ________________________ time

Sets of words for children to manipulate in forming compound words may be made as follows:

1 set of compound words printed with black felt pen

1 set of the first component words printed in green

1 set of the second component words printed in red

As a simple task, the child looks at the entire word in black, then finds the red and green words that combine to match it. For a more advanced task the child would try to put together green and red printed words to form a compound. Different combinations would probably be possible if he were not trying to match specific compound words.

A more advanced task is recognition of words in which the pronunciation or the spelling of one of the component words has changed, or the meaning of which is not readily evident from the meaning of the component words:

almost
bonfire
breakfast
dumbfound
good-bye
leatherneck

moreover
nevertheless
nothing
pastime
shortcoming
sidekick

4.b) Decodes words with inflectional and derivational affixes

Inflections are suffixes which are always final and which adapt words to fit varying structural positions without chaning their lexical meaning or part of speech. Nouns have two inflections, the plural and the possessive.

(1) Noun plural inflections

The various spellings of plural endings are given below with some examples that may be used for demonstration.

(a) Most nouns form the plural by adding *s* to the singular.
The *s* may represent either the /s/ or the /z/ sound.

/s/	/z/
books	beans
cats	dogs
tickets	zebras

(b) Most nouns ending in *s, ss, sh, ch,* and *x,* form the plural by adding *es.*

glasses
losses

dishes
brushes

lunches
speeches

foxes
taxes

(c) Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a vowel letter add *s.*

days
keys

toys
guys

Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant letter change *y* to *i* and add *es.*

babies
flies

countries
bunnies

(d) Some nouns ending in *f* or *fe* change the *f* to *v* and add *es.* Others merely add *s.*

calves
elves
halves
knives
leaves
lives
loaves
selves
sheaves
shelves
thieves
wives
wolves

beliefs
chiefs
griefs
handkerchiefs
hoofs
proofs
reefs
roofs
safes
waifs

(e) A few nouns form the plural by adding *en* or *ren:*

children
oxen
brethren

(f) Some plurals are formed by internal changes:

feet
geese
men
mice
teeth
women

(g) A few nouns ending in *o* form the plural by adding *es:*

echoes
heroes
potatoes
tomatoes

(h) The plural of some nouns ending in *o* may be either *s* or *es:*

cargos	cargoes
mottos	mottoes
tornados	tornadoes
volcanos	volcanoes

(i) Some nouns, chiefly names of animals, have the same form for singular and plural:

bison
deer
grouse
moose
sheep
series

Names of animals that live in herds or flocks vary as used collectively or individually:

antelope	antelopes
buffalo	buffaloes
elk	elks
fish	fishes
fowl	fowls

(j) Some nouns are used only in plural form:

cattle
people

ACTIVITIES

Most children do not have difficulty reading the simple forms of plural nouns, because inflections are already part of their oral vocabulary. The teacher may wish to introduce the subject by drawing on the board a familiar object or animal, the name of which the children can already read, such as a dog or a cat. Or he may hold up a picture of a dog. At the same time he will print the word *dog* on the board and have the children read it aloud. Next he will draw or show pictures of two or more dogs, and ask the children to say the word for more than one dog. Then he will add *s* to the word on the board to show how the /s/ or /z/ sound looks in print. (Although the sound of the plural differs, for example, in words like *cats* and *dogs*, these plural forms are so much a part of children's oral language that they will not be aware of the difference.)

After presenting several examples and giving the children plenty of opportunity to see how the plural form is represented in print, the teacher may wish to give children a paper divided into four squares, each containing the name of a simple object that is easy to draw and that the children can already read, and have the children illustrate the singular or plural form given, by drawing one or several pictures. Another activity would be to give the singular form of known words and have the children write the plural form. Reverse the process by having the children write the singular form. The latter sequence would be particularly useful for the words that form plurals by changing final *y* to *ies* and *f* to *ves*. The teacher should also make sure that the child can read the words he has changed.

Some children may not need this type of activity for reading purposes. Most of the paper and pencil exercises that involve plurals are intended for the improvement of spelling rather than for improving word recognition in reading. The teacher should consider both his purposes and the children's needs in assigning such activities.

Although most children will probably not have difficulty with singular and plural names, there may be a few who do. They will probably need experiences in the manipulation of objects such as toy trucks or various plastic toys. They should follow a sequence of observing and manipulating the objects (or pictures), then saying the singular and plural names of the objects and finally observing the printed forms of the words. If the teacher determines, however, that the problem is really one of understanding – that the child does not grasp the concept of singular and plural and does not make such distinctions in speaking, he may wish to put more emphasis at the beginning on oral language experiences to help develop the child's language facility, and move into reading more gradually.

For words like *fox, dress, wish* and *witch*, it may be pointed out that because of the final sounds of these words, it is impossible to add a plural /s/ sound without putting in a vowel sound, and this makes another syllable, spelled *es*.

Plurals like *children, feet,* and *teeth* are among the commonest words in children's oral vocabularies and will be learned early as sight words. Other plural forms will probably be encountered in later reading materials such as social studies and science books and may be taught as needed.

4.b)(2) Noun possessive inflections

To form the possessive singular of a noun, add *'s*.

cat's meow
dog's bark
Peggy's dress

To form the possessive plural of a word whose plural does not end in *s*, add *'s*.

children's drawings
men's voices
mice's squeaks

To form the possessive plural of a word whose plural ends in *s*, add the plural *s*, then the apostrophe.

horses's tails
cars' engines
cows' milk

ACTIVITIES

The *'s* form will be taught first. It may be taught in a manner similar to noun plurals, with an object displayed such as a doll, and the word *doll* put on the board. The teacher might have a child put a hat on the doll, and ask "Whose hat is it?" Write *the doll's hat* on the board. Then point out the form *'s*. Ask the children how it is different in appearance from the plural form they previously learned. Ask how it is different in meaning. Write a number of phrases on the board such as:

three cats	cat's whiskers
many cows	cow's horns
some lions	lion's roar

Have the children inspect the words to see how they are different and tell what each form means. The same type of exercise may be done on paper, with the children drawing pictures to illustrate the words or writing the words as captions to pictures. A more advanced task is to present written sentences with a blank space and both forms as options, and have the child underline or write in the form that fits the context. The *s'* should be taught only when the child is completely sure of the singular form.

4.b)(3) Verb number and tense inflections

There are four inflectional endings for verbs that a reader must recognize:

(a) Third singular inflection – *s* or *es*

(b) Past tense inflection – *ed*

(c) Part participle inflection – *ed*

(d) Present participle inflection – *ing*

The reader must also recognize the inflected forms of irregular verbs like *see* and *take*.

There are certain changes in the spelling patterns of some regular verbs when inflectional suffixes are added.

(a) Verbs with the CVC spelling pattern, like *hop*, double the final consonant letter before *ed* and *ing*.

(b) Verbs with the CVC*e* spelling pattern, like *hope*, drop the *e* before *ed* and *ing*.

(c) Verbs ending in C*y* like *fly*, change the *y* to *i* before *ed* and *es*.

Inflections are not necessarily separate syllables. The plural *s* in *boys* and the past tense inflection *ed* in *looked* do not constitute separate syllables, whereas the plural *es* in *foxes* and the past tense inflection *ed* in *lifted* are separate syllables. When *ed* is added to verbs ending in *d, t, de,* or *te,* another syllable is created. When it is added to words ending in other consonant letters or in other consonant letters + *e*, a separate syllable is not created. Examples are:

dreamed
laughed
picked
reached

hopped
rubbed
shrugged
stirred

hoped
named
raged
ruled

added
loaded
seeded
weeded

greeted
regretted
suited
waited

graded
alluded
noted
quoted

4.b)(4) Adjective and adverb inflections

Adjectives have three forms or degrees: positive, comparative, and superlative.

	Positive	**Comparative** (comparing two)	**Superlative** (comparing more than two)
Base adjectives have the inflections *er* and *est*:	hard	harder	hardest
	high	higher	highest
	loud	louder	loudest
	soft	softer	softest
Base adjectives with CVC have the spelling pattern double the final consonant letter before *er* and *est*:	big	bigger	biggest
	hot	hotter	hottest
	red	redder	reddest
	sad	sadder	saddest
	wet	wetter	wettest
Derived adjectives are formed by adding suffixes to various stems.			
Derived adjectives are formed by adding *y* or *ly* to a stem. Change *y* to *i* before *er* and *est:*	pretty	prettier	prettiest
	sunny	sunnier	sunniest
	funny	funnier	funniest
	curly	curlier	curliest
	friendly	friendlier	friendliest
	lonely	lonelier	loneliest
Other derived adjectives form the comparative and superlative by adding *more* and *most:*	natural	more natural	most natural
	remarkable	more remarkable	most remarkable
	hopeful	more hopeful	most hopeful
	popular	more popular	most popular
	childish	more childish	most childish
	active	more active	most active
	ragged	more ragged	most ragged
	exciting	more exciting	most exciting
Irregular adjectives	bad	worse	worst
	good	better	best
	little	less	least
	many, much	more	most

Adverbs also have three forms:

fast	faster	fastest
hard	harder	hardest
near	nearer	nearest
soon	sooner	soonest

	Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Derived adverbs are formed by adding *ly* to an adjective. Add *more* or *most* before the adverb:	loudly	more loudly	most loudly
	carelessly	more carelessly	most carelessly
	quickly	more quickly	most quickly
	naturally	more naturally	most naturally
Irregular adverbs:	badly	worse	worst
	well	better	best
	far	farther	farthest
		further	furthest

Children's activities should be concerned with having them recognize

(a) *er* and *est* form of adjectives

(b) doubling of final consonant of CVC words before *er* and *est*

(c) *ier* and *iest* forms of adjectives

(d) *er* and *est* forms of adverbs

(e) the use of *more* and *most* before some adjectives and adverbs

(f) irregular inflections of adjectives and adverbs

4.b)(5) Derivational prefixes and suffixes

Derivational suffixes differ from inflectional suffixes in several ways. They have a more limited distribution than inflectional suffixes. For example, the number of words to which *-ment* can be added is small compared with the number of words to which the plural *-s* can be added. The use of derivational suffixes is arbitrary. We can, for example, add *-ment* to *pay* but not to *observe,* which takes *-ance*. Derivational suffixes are not final as inflections are. Having added *-ment* to *pay* and *-ance* to *observe*, we can add a final plural inflectional suffix to form *payments* and *observances.* Derivational suffixes usually change words from one part of speech to another. This change is indicated in the following list of the principal derivational suffixes.

Noun Suffixes	Added to Nouns	Added to Verbs	Added to Bound Stems	Added to Adjectives
-age		breakage		
-ance		performance		
-ce				independence
-cy	democracy			literacy
-er, -ar, -or	outfielder	catcher	carpenter	
		liar		
		sailor		
-ee		payee		
-eer	auctioneer			
-ess	hostess			
-dom	kingdom			
-ian	librarian			
-ism,	Buddhism		monotheism	
-ist	violinist			
-faction		satisfaction		
-fication		identification		
-ing		reading		
-ity, -ility			quality	reality, visibility
-let	booklet			
-ling	duckling			
-ment		agreement		
-ness				happiness
-ship	friendship			
-ster	gangster			youngster
-tion, -sion		action	condition	
Verb Suffixes				
-ate	orchestrate		operate	
-en	heighten		glisten	sharpen
-fy	beautify		satisfy	simplify
-ish			finish	
-ize	idolize			modernize

Adjective Suffixes	Added to Nouns	Added to Verbs	Added to Bound Stems	Added to Adjectives
-able, -ible		remarkable	viable	
-al, -ual	natural		local, punctual	
-ar	columnar		popular	
-ary	legendary		literary	
-ed	coated	tired	rugged	
-en	wooden			
-ent, -ant		significant	patient	
-ful	hopeful			
-ic, -ical	climatic	comic, comical		
-ing		exciting		
-ish	childish		lavish	
-ive		active	native	
-ly	friendly		ugly	(rare) deadly
-ous	marvelous		insidious	
-y	healthy		holy	
Adverb Suffixes				
-ly, -ally			early (rare)	sadly, hopefully magically
-ward, -wards	homeward backwards			
-wise	lengthwise			

Prefixes

Prefixes in English are always derivational. They may be attached to free stems or bound stems. The free stems may be simple words (*untie*) or complex words made up of a stem plus a suffix (*suborbital*). Prefixes attached to bound stems are found chiefly in words derived from Greek and Latin (*amphibious, anarchy, ascend*). A word may have several prefixes and suffixes attached to the stem (such as the well-known *antidisestablishmentarianism)*. A distinction is made between prefixes and combining forms (*deca-, tri-, bene-*). Combining forms differ from affixes in that they may be separate words in the language of origin (*bene*), or they may be the stem to which a suffix is added (*decade, triad*).

The most commonly used prefixes in English are:

Prefix	Meaning	Example
a-	on, in, at in such a state, manner, process of	afoot, abed, ashore afire, aloud, a-hunting anew
ab- (abs-, a-)	away, from, off	abduct, abstain, avert
ad- (a-, ac-, af-, ag-, al-, an-, ap-, ar-, as-, at-)	to, toward, at, about	adhere, amass, accede, affix, aggregate, alliteration annotate, approximate, ascend, attract

an- (a-)	not, without, lacking	amorphous, anarchy, atheist
ambi-	both, around	ambidextrous, ambiguous
amphi-	around, on both sides, of both kinds	amphitheater, amphibious
ante-	prior to, forward	antediluvian, anteroom
anti (ant-)	opposed to, opposite	antiaircraft, anticlimax antacid
be-	on, around, over	bedaub
	to a great degree	befuddle, berate
	excessively	bedeck, beribboned
	about, to, at, upon, against across	bestride, bespeak
	cause to be	belittle, befriend
	affect, afflict or cover with	bedevil, bewitch, befog
bi-	two, eve[illegible] to two parts	bicycle, biweekly, bisect
circum-	around, about	circumnavigate
co-	with, together, jointly	coexist
	in the same degree	coextensive
	partner, deputy	coauthor, copilot
com- (con-, col-, cor-)	together, with, jointly	commiserate, concentrate, collateral, correlation
contra-	against, contrary, contrasting	contradict, contradistinction
de-	away	deduce
	down	dejected
	from	decamp
	opposite of	devitalize
	remove, remove from	defrost, dethrone
	reduce, lower	devalue, debase
	get off of	deplane
demi-	half	demigod
dia-	through	diameter, diaphanous
dis- (dif-)	do the opposite of	disestablish,
	deprive of	disable
	exclude	disbar
	absence of, opposite	disunion
	not	disagreeable
	apart, away	dismiss, disperse, diffuse

ex- (e-)	out, out of, outside, former	explode, extract, eject, exclave, ex-President
extra-	beyond, outside of	extraordinary, extraterrestrial
hemi-	half	hemisphere
hyper-	above, beyond	hypercritical, hypertension
hypo-	under, less	hypodermic, hypothyroid
in- (im-, em-, en-)	in, into	income, incarcerate, import, embalm, entwine
in- (il-, im-, ir-)	not	inorganic, illiterate, impartial, irregular
inter-	between, among	interact, interfere
mis-	bad, badly, opposite or lack of	misdeed, misjudge, mistrust
multi-	many	multicolored
ob- (of-, op-)	inversely, against	obtuse, object, offend, oppose
per-	through, throughout, thoroughly	perspire, pervade, perfect
peri-	all around, about	perimeter, periscope
poly-	many, several	polygon
post-	after, later	postscript, postdate
pre-	prior to, in front of, in advance of	preschool, precede prepay
pro-	forward, before, located in front of	proceed, prologue, proboscis
pro-	taking the place of, favoring	pronoun, pro-American
re-	back, again	recall, reprint
retro-	backward	retroactive
semi-	half, partly	semicircle, semiconscious

sub-	under subordinate dealing with subordinate parts less than	subway subtopic sublet subhuman
super-	over, above, excessive or superior	superabundance, superlunary, superpower
sur-	over, above	surcharge, surface, surrealism
syn- (sym-)	with, together at the same time	sympathy, syndrome, synchronize
trans-	across, beyond, through, changing	transatlantic, transcend, transparent, transform
ultra-	beyond, excessively	ultraviolet, ultramodern
un-	not, opposite of to reverse, remove, deprive, or release	unfair, unrest unbend, unfasten, unnerve, uncage
uni-	one, single	unicorn, unicellular

Prefixes and most derivational suffixes have vowel sounds creating separate syllables.

ACTIVITIES

With primary children who are just beginning to acquire reading skills, it is appropriate to discuss the simplest derivational suffixes and prefixes attached to free **bases** which are common words in primary children's vocabularies (*sandy, playful, unhappy*). At the upper elementary level, children will be introduced to many words with bound bases to which prefixes and suffixes are attached. With some words in which the structure of prefix and bound base is rather obscure, children will learn to read them using sound-spelling patterns and syllables before they are aware that they consist of base and affix. The teacher will have to consider the lists of suffixes and prefixes given above and use his judgment as to which ones are appropriate for discussion with a particular group of children. Very able older children sometimes enjoy making a bulletin board illustrating the Greek and Latin origins of common words with prefixes and suffixes.

4.c) Decodes contractions

Contractions are grouped below according to the letter which the apostrophe replaces:

(1) ***o*** **in** ***not: isn't, wasn't, weren't, hasn't, hasn't, haven't, don't, doesn't, didn't, can't, couldn't, shouldn't, wouldn't, mustn't***

(2) ***wi-*** **in** ***will*** **and** ***sha-*** **in** ***shall: I'll, you'll, he'll, she'll, it'll, we'll, they'll***

(3) ***ha-*** **in** ***have: I've, you've, we've, they've, would've, should've, could've.***

(4) ***i*** **in** ***is: he's, she's, it's, there's***

(5) ***a*** **in** ***are: we're, you're, they're***

(6) ***woul*** **in** ***would*** **or** ***ha*** **in** ***had: I'd, you'd, he'd, she'd, we'd, they'd***

(7) ***a*** **in** ***am: I'm***

(8) ***i*** **in** ***it: 'tis, 'twas, 'twill, 'twould, 'twere***

The number of contractions is limited and involves short familiar words (pronouns, common verbs and auxiliaries, and *not*). They should not present any serious problem in word recognition. The teacher should make sure that children understand that the apostrophe stands for omitted letters and therefore has a different function from its use in possessive inflections.

ACTIVITIES

Contractions might be introduced with a discussion of the meanings of the words *contract* and *contraction*. Some science enthusiasts in the class will probably know that changes in temperature cause expansion and contraction of certain substances. The teacher can relate such contraction to contraction in spoken words, and explain that the latter is shown in print by joining the two words, omitting the letters that represent the part of the word that is omitted in speech, and substituting a mark called an apostrophe to show where the omitted letters were.

Discuss with children the meaning of *'tis* and *'twas* in the first lines of "America" and "The Night Before Christmas."

Demonstrate by writing two separate words on the board. Have the children read the words aloud, both in isolation and in the context of a sentence. Then have them say the same sentence, using the contraction. Ask them which sounds they do not hear and which letters they think would be omitted and replaced by the apostrophe. Write the contraction on the board, and let the children read it both in isolation and in the context of sentences which they may dictate or write. Do this with a number of contractions, writing the two component words in one column, then asking the children to supply the contraction to be written in a second column. Reverse the process and write the contractions on the board, and have the children read them and supply the two separate words. The same two procedures may be followed in written exercises for further practice done at the children's desks.

As children will need to learn to recognize the limited number of contractions at sight, some of the games and activities suggested in section 1 might be adapted for use with children who need further practice.

5. Uses knowledge of one-syllable word patterns to recode words of more than one syllable.

The distinction between a spoken syllable and a syllable in a written word is made clear in the following dictionary definitions of *syllable:*

- A unit of spoken language that is next bigger than a speech sound and consists of one or more vowel sounds alone or of a syllabic consonant alone or of either with one or more consonant sounds preceding or following
- One or more letters (as *syl, la,* and *ble*) in a word (as·syl la · ble) usually set off from the rest of the word by a centered dot or a hyphen and roughly corresponding to the syllables of spoken language and treated as helps to pronunciation or as guides to hyphenation at the end of a line[3]

Let us consider first the spoken syllable. According to the first definition, it may consist of a vowel sound preceded and/or followed by one or more consonant sounds, as in *permit*. It may consist of a vowel sound alone, as in the first syllable of *obey* or the last syllable of *India*. It may consist of two vowel sounds – the pronoun *I* and the first syllable of *oyster* are classed phonetically as diphthongs – glides from one sound to another. Finally, a syllable may consist of a syllabic consonant alone, as in the last syllable of *kitten* and *turtle.*

Phoneticians consider that /n/ and /l/ may be syllabic consonants, and they are shown as such in a number of dictionaries and basal reader glossaries. For example, the glossary of the Ginn and Company reader *With Skies and Wings* shows the following pronunciations which include syllables without vowels:

bristle (bris'l)
buffalo (buf'l o)
fiddle (fid'l)
horizon (hə ri zn)
mountain (mount'n)
nestle (nes'l)
original (ə rij'ə nl)
present (prez'nt)
satellite (sat'l it)
struggle (strug'l)

Webster's Third New International Dictionary, Unabridged also treats such syllables as vowelless, and the Pronunciation Guide comments:

> Apparently there are many, especially among writers of textbooks on phonics and teachers in the elementary schools, who are of the opinion that there can be no syllable without a vowel. Every dictionary in line of succession from, and including Noah Webster's original dictionary of 1828 shows vowelless syllables.[4]

Concerning pronunciation of such syllables, the Pronunciation Guide comments:

> Most speakers of English who pronounce a vowel in the second syllable of *wooden* or *threaten* probably do so because the spelling contains a vowel letter before the *n.* These speakers make a literal-minded interpretation of the presence of the written vowel, and do not see that they have introduced a vowel sound unnaturally.[5]

---

[3] *Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary* (Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Company, 1969), pp. 891-892.

[4] *Webster's Third New International Dictionary, Unabridged* (Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Company, 1961), p. 34a.

[5] *Ibid.* p. 35a.

On the other hand, some dictionaries and basal reader glossaries treat such syllables as a schwa plus final consonant: /əl/ or /ə n/. The final syllables of the following words may appear in pronunciation respellings as either syllabic consonants: /l/, /n/, or /r/; or as unstressed /əl/, /ən/, and /ər/.

bottle
bundle
middle
turtle
final
funnel
futile
metal
button
certain
eaten
fountain
wither
honor

Regarding the fact that the vowel diphthongs are actually two sounds, we usually do not hear them as two separate sounds when words are pronounced in normal speech. As the vowel diphthongs will sound like single vowel sounds to the child, and as the teacher will teach them as one sound in reading instruction, the linguistic distinction that they are actually two sounds will not be important.

Since the syllabic consonant is interchangeable with the schwa plus consonant, and since we hear the diphthongs as one sound, we are justified in making the important generalization that *every syllable has a single vowel which is the nucleus of the syllable.*

One point to keep in mind in teaching children to distinguish oral syllables is that the demarcation of oral syllables is sometimes ambiguous. *Webster's Dictionary* Pronunciation Guide has pointed out that ambiguity, observing that although dictionaries attempt to mark syllable boundaries in their respelled pronunciations, phoneticians are not always certain as to precisely where these divisions are or how many syllables a word has.

> The three words *gore, goer, Goa* are pronounced alike by many U.S. speakers, and yet it is general practice to treat the first as a monosyllable only and the other two as disyllables only.[6]

Similarly, the word *hickory* is in some dialects a three-syllable word and in others a two-syllable word. Dictionary respellings indicate that there are many words like *hickory*, and *comfortable* for which pronunciation, including the number of syllables, varies from one dialect to another, from one speaker to another, and from one utterance to another of the same speaker.

We now consider the second definition of a syllable as a group of letters in a printed word. The main purpose of such syllable demarcation is to indicate division points at which a hyphen may be put at the end of a written line. Such divisions, however, as the definition indicates, only "roughly" correspond to the way syllables are pronounced. *Webster's* Explanatory Notes point out that where syllable division is indicated in the pronunciation respelling by centered dots, "these centered periods in the respelling for pronunciation often do not correspond with centered periods in the boldface entry. Thus in our analysis the first syllable of the pronunciation of *metric* ends with \e\ and the second syllable begins with \t\, but printers usually divide the word between the *t* and the *r*."[7]

It is this discrepancy between syllables in speech and syllables in print that has led some writers to the opinion that syllabication is being taught inappropriately, when it is based on the vocabulary entry of the dictionary.

---

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 47a

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 16a

> The way a word is pronounced has nothing whatsoever to do with the way it is divided at the end of a line in writing. Syllabic division for writing is a mechanical device determined centuries ago by printers who evened up the margin at the right. . .[8]

Thus some syllabication exercises for 20th century children learning to read are based upon mechanical practices set up by William Caxton and other 15th century printers – practices that were intended for dividing words in print but not intended to be related to words in speech.

Other writers believe that the only basis for dividing words should be morphemic – division into bases and affixes. To limit analysis of multisyllabic words to looking at bases and affixes, however, leaves innumerable words which cannot be analyzed in this way. Although it is true that the syllables in printed words and the syllables in spoken words do not match exactly, there is some relationship between them – as the definition indicated, they correspond roughly. Also, some children seem to learn by looking at parts and then combining them into wholes. For these reasons, it is suggested that if children cannot analyze a multisyllabic word as compound or as a base with affixes, they try to find familiar spelling patterns which may give a clue to pronunciation. For reading purposes, it is not recommended that children learn the rigid rules of syllabication based on printers' practices established in the 15th century, because in many cases, such division results in artificial fragments of words which do not resemble normal speech. To the degree that such word fragments are a clue to syllabication in normal speech, looking at the spelling patterns of written syllables can be useful. Before trying to divide words into syllables, however, it is suggested that the child first become familiar with the syllable as a unit of speech.

---

[8] Mildred Troup, "Controversial Issues Relating to Published Instructional Materials" *Controversial Issues in Reading and Promising Solutions*, Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 91, ed. Helen M. Robinson (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, December 1961), p. 142.

5.a) Recognizes syllables in spoken words as units of language consisting of a vowel alone, a vowel preceded or followed by consonants, or a syllabic consonant

Before considering syllables in printed words, children need to become acquainted with syllables in speech. In order to identify the latter, they need to know what a consonant and a vowel are; because according to the definition of a syllable, the vowel sound is the nucleus of the syllable. Activities designed for helping children recognize speech consonants and vowels were given in section 2. The teacher may wish to review them before working with oral syllables.

ACTIVITIES

A good way to introduce the subject of oral syllables is to start with the children's names. Ask them what vowel sound they hear, whether everyone's name has one vowel, or whether they can hear more than one vowel sound in some names. Point out that some names have more than one part, each with its own vowel sound; and these parts are called syllables. The number of vowel sounds in names determines the number of syllables. Have the children say their names, listen for the vowel sounds, and clap the number of syllables. Have them clap the syllables as they sing a song like "I'm a Little Teapot." Let them try to think of the longest words they know (or of odd, funny, or make-believe words) and figure out the number of syllables by clapping. Or recite familiar nursery rhymes and poems, and have them listen to identify words that have more than one syllable.

Introduce the subject of stress by asking them whether they can hear that one part of their name is said with greater force than the others. Ask them to listen for the more forceful syllable as they say the name and clap louder on the syllable. Have them recite some rhyming couplets or short verses and listen to the rhyming words to hear what it is that makes them rhyme. Try to get them to hear that it is the vowel sound in the stressed syllable that is the same while the preceding consonant is different.

Short verses that are used in fingerplays are appropriate for counting syllables. For example:

Here's a little bunny with ears so funny,
who lives in a hole in the ground.
When a noise he does hear, he pricks up his ears,
and jumps in a hole in the ground.

I'm a little teapot, short and stout.
This is my handle,
This is my spout,
When I get my steam up, then I shout
"Just tip me over, pour me out!"

Two little squirrels sitting on a limb.
One's named Bushy, one's name Jim.
Run away, Bushy; Run away, Jim;
Come back, Bushy; Come back, Jim.

Hickory, dickory, dock. The mouse ran
up the clock.
The clock struck one,
The mouse ran down.
Hickory, dickory, dock.

Presentation of syllables at this point is in the context of spoken words, not written ones. A important point for the teacher to keep in mind is that, as the *Webster's Dictionary* Pronunciation Guide pointed out, the demarcation of oral syllables is sometimes ambiguous both as to number and as to content. In determining the number of syllables in a spoken word, the teacher needs to listen carefully to the child's dialect to determine whether the number of syllables he hears and pronounces is the same as the number the child hears and says. Also, it is not so important that the child know where a spoken word would be divided into syllables; what is important is that he recognize first that there are such units as syllables in spoken words; second, that he can listen to and count syllables; and third, that each syllable has a vowel sound.

5.b) When a V letter is followed by two different C letters and another V letter (VCCV), pronounces the first syllable with a short vowel or a vowel affected by /r/.

When two consonant letters are next to each other in medial position, between vowel letters, the written word is usually divided between the consonant letters. Pronunciation of the word in normal speech or oral reading may or may not show this division, depending on intonation factors such as stress and juncture. In a dictionary, this difference is reflected in the difference between division of entry words and division of pronunciation respellings.

Because of this ambiguity in delineating syllables, it is suggested that rather than having the child learn formal rules for dividing the printed words into syllables and then try to put them back together in a word, he be encouraged to look at the first part of a word to see whether in the first syllable there is a familiar spelling pattern which he can use as a cue to the vowel sound and then blend it with the rest of the word.

In the words that have the VCCV pattern, the first syllable through the first consonant letter will usually resemble a one-syllable word in the CVC pattern, thus giving a clue to the vowel sound. The second syllable may present a similar pattern; but more often than not, it will be unaccented. Examples are:

can vas　　nap kin　　pen cil　　win dow　　pic nic

ACTIVITIES

Ask children to think about what else they can do to figure out a long word, if they do not recognize it as a compound word or a root word with prefixes or suffixes. Ask them to think about how they can recognize one-syllable words. If they do not think of it, suggest to them that they can look for the familiar spelling patterns they have learned in one-syllable words that suggest vowel and consonant sound combinations in the syllables of the longer words; and then try to blend these syllables into the whole word.

Put some of the following words on the board:

bam boo
ban dit
can dy
cap sule
cen ter
chim ney
cir cus
cor ner

doc tor
en gine
fal con
fan cy
mag net
mar ket
mar vel
nap kin

num ber
or bit
pencil
pic nic
prac tice
sil ver
tad pole
thun der

tim ber
vel vet
wal rus
whim per
wig wam
win dow
win ter
won der

am bition
at mosphere
bac teria
bal cony
dan delion
em bryo
prin cipal
tor nado

Have the children inspect these words for familiar spelling patterns. Help them to discover that the first three letters resemble the short one-syllable words in the CVC pattern which they have already learned. Ask them to read as many of the words as they can, and ask them what they notice about the vowel sound and about the stress. Help them to arrive at the principle that pronouncing the first syllable with a short vowel (or, as some of the newer basal materials term it, an "unglided vowel") or a vowel affected by /r/, followed by an unaccented second syllable, will often (but not always – there are always exceptions) help them to recognize such words.

5.c) When a V letter is followed by doubled C letters, pronounces the first syllable with a short vowel followed by a single consonant sound

One often hears that a word should be cut between doubled consonant letters. This is true at the end of a line of print. Many people tend to see a familiar pattern similar to the one-syllable words ending in doubled consonants, such as *hill, tell,* or *miss;* and this similarity of pattern gives a clue to the pronounciation of the syllable with a short (unglided) vowel. Also, to split the word between the doubled consonants usually gives a last syllable which does not represent the way the final syllable is pronounced in actual speech. For example, to divide *mitten* as *mit* and *ten* gives the final syllable *ten*, but we do not actually say /ten/ when pronouncing *mitten* in normal speech. What we say is /ən/ or /n/, and this pronunciation is reflected in dictionary and basal reader pronunciation guides. To divide between the double consonants results in a highly artificial pronunciation of the last syllable which the child must then readjust back to normal speech; whereas if he saw *mitt* as a unit with a short vowel and then *en* as an unaccented final syllable, he would come closer to the actual pronunciation of the word in one step. The written word *mitten* would be divided between the doubled *t* at the end of a line of print; but that is another matter – we are here trying to help the child to read it, not to divide it in print.

ACTIVITIES

First, review one-syllable words with doubled final consonant letters. Write several words like *add, ill, odd, pill, yell, puff,* and *miss* on the chalkboard; and have the children read them. Ask the children what all of the words have in common in their spelling. Ask what kind of vowel sound all of the words have. Now mention that some longer words have syllables that resemble these words; and ask the children to look at these longer words to see (1) how they resemble the ones on the board and (2) how they are different.

Next, select from the following combinations some that will have meaning for the children, and write them on the board in two columns:

buff	buffalo	lass	lasso
muff	muffin, Muffet	miss	missile, Mississippi
puff	puffin	less	lesson
ruff	ruffle	mess	message, messenger
bell	bellow	pass	passenger
fell	fellow	lull	lullaby
jell	jello	gull	gullet, gully
bill	billion	hull	hullabaloo
mill	million	skill	skillet
pill	pillow	mitt	mitten
sill	silly	mutt	mutter
will	willow	fizz	fizzle
		buzz	buzzard

Ask the children what is alike in the pairs. Have each child read the words he knows. Ask what is alike in the pronunciation of the pairs, what kind of vowel sound each word has, and what can be observed about the second or unaccented syllable of the longer words. Now see whether each child can apply these discoveries to reading the words he did not know. Discuss meaning as necessary.

As a third step, put the following words on the board, and ask the children what they can find in the second word of each pair that is similar to the first. Ask them how they think the syllable in the second word might be pronounced. Help them to pronounce each word with the short (unglided) vowel before the doubled consonant. Tell them that such syllables in longer words will often give them a clue to pronunciation.

bass	ambassador
dill	armadillo
bell	rebellion
miss	permissive
stress	distress
tell	intelligent

Later, review the words ending in *-all, -oll,* and *-ull.* Put the words in the first column below on the board, and have the children recall the vowel sounds. Then put the words in the second column next to the first, and have the children read as many as they can. Ask them what they notice about the syllables with the doubled consonant letters in the second group of words. Be sure that they can hear the contrast in vowel sounds between the two groups of words. After they have recognized that the vowel sound changes in all but the last two pairs, have them read any of the words they did not know. Discuss meanings as appropriate.

ball	ballot	poll	pollinate
fall	fallow	roll	rollicking
gall	gallows, gallop	troll	trolley
hall	Halloween	bull	bullet
mall	marshmallow, mallet	pull	pullet
tall	tallow		

The final step is to help children see and pronounce the syllable with a doubled consonant letter, even though they cannot recognize the syllable as a short word. For example, *kitt* is not recognizable as a word; but the spelling pattern is a clue to the vowel sound in *kitten.* Some of the following words may be used to demonstrate:

bunny
rabbit
daddy
buddy
bitter
bottle
cattle
copper
cotton
collar
different
dollar
hippopotamus
possible
little

happen
happy
hollow
kettle
matter
pennant, penny
cannon
meddle
riddle
puddle
platter
pattern
simmer
summer
taffy

sudden
Tennessee
ribbon
syllable
comma
attic
barricade
Minnesota
banner
hammer
ladder
parrot
valley
cabbage
rattle

It may be noted that some of the words listed in this section are actually base words with suffixes (e.g., ***missile*** and ***possible***). As the bases are bound morphemes with rather obscure roots, not readily evident to primary children as root words, they are listed here rather than under the section on prefixes and suffixes.

There are exceptions to the pronunciation of syllables ending in doubled consonant letters – mainly when the syllable is unaccented, in which case the vowel is a *schwa* /ə/: *embassy, compass, cutlass, Missouri.*

5.d) Uses medial C clusters as a guide to pronunciation

Children may be encouraged to look for medial consonant letter combinations that resemble the initial consonant clusters in one-syllable words. In the division of printed words, such clusters usually are treated as the beginning of the following syllable as in *cel-e-brate*. Other similar medial consonant combinations, however, may not be so treated (e.g., *dr* in *bedroom*, which is a compound word, and in *madrigal*, where the *d* and *r* are in different syllables). When one considers pronounced syllables in normal speech, the situation is even more ambiguous, as was pointed out at the beginning of section 5. Consider the consonant combination *st* which appears medially in words like *aster, astern, astir, astronaut, astronomy, crystal, destroy, plaster,* and *sister*. *Webster's* Pronunciation Guide comments concerning the placement of the stress mark in the transcription of *astronomer* \əˈstränəmə(r)\ that "it is impossible to know from a comparison of normally pronounced English items containing the sequence \st\, whether the syllable division is before the \s\, between the \s\ and \t\, or after the\t\."[9] And although in print *mistake* is separated between the *s* and *t*, the pronunciation respelling shows the \s\ and \t\ sounds as beginning the second syllable.

ACTIVITIES

Rather than having children learn formal rules about syllabication involving consonant clusters, it is suggested that they be encouraged to look for medial consonant letter clusters and to try to use them as pronunciation guides. Some examples of words with such clusters are:

apron
cyclone
emblem
entrance
fabric
hydrant
lobster
mustang
whisker
zebra

---

[9] *Webster's Third International, Unabridged,* p. 34a.

5.e. When a V letter is followed by a single C letter and another V letter (VCV), pronounces the first syllable as an open syllable with a glided (long) vowel or with a schwa, or as a closed syllable ending in the consonant, with an unglided (short) vowel.

A syllable ending in a vowel sound with no consonant constricting the air stream is considered an open syllable. When the syllable ends in a consonant sound, it is called a closed syllable. Phonetically it may be difficult to tell to which syllable a consonant sound between vowel sounds belongs. In general, a single consonant sound between vowel sounds is considered to be in the following syllable when preceded by a stressed, glided (long) vowel, as in *baby*, or an unstressed schwa vowel, as in *banana,* and to be in the preceding syllable when preceded by a stressed, unglided (short) vowel, as in *Babylon.* When the VCV spelling pattern is found in a word beginning with an open syllable, the first syllable will resemble the short CV words like *go* and *me* that children have already become familiar with, and this resemblance may be a clue that the vowel sound is glided (long). An open syllable with glided (long) vowel is the pattern in the following words:

ba by
cli mate
cra zy
e dict
e vil

gra vy
i dea
la bel
la dy
mu sic

mo ment
mo tion
na tion
na ture
o bey

o pen
pa per
pi rate
po ny
pu pil

ra dar
ra ven
so fa
sta men
ti ger

When the initial vowel is a prefix, as in *away*, it will usually be a schwa in an unstressed syllable. A medial vowel syllable may also be an unstressed schwa, as in:

ed u cate
vi o let
cel e brate

In many words, that have the VCV spelling pattern, however, the first syllable is closed, ending in the consonant sound, and the vowel is unglided (short). Some words which illustrate this pattern are:

bal ance
cab in
cam el
drag on
ep och
ev er
dam age
fig ure
fin ish
frol ic
hab it
lav ish
lev el
lim it
man age

med al
met al
mod el
mon arch
pal ace
pan ic
pet al
pit y
prim er
prof it
rab id
rap id
rad ish
rav el
rev el

riv er
riv et
rob in
sal ad
sat in
sav age
sev en
sev er
tal ent
tim id
trav el
ten ure
tep id
val id
val ue

van ish
wag on
wiz ard

cab inet
Cam elot
cap ital
del icate
gal axy
gen eral
Jan uary
jav elin
mad rigal
mal ady
mav erick

med icine
mon astery
mel ody
min eral
pal isade
prim itive
rat ify
san ity
sim ilar
tal isman
tol erant
vag abond
val entine
van ity
vas eline

ACTIVITIES

A child should be aware of both of these pronunciation patterns for words with the VCV spelling pattern. The teacher may present words which are in the children's oral vocabularies, write them on the board both in isolation and in context, and have children experiment with both pronunciation patterns until they arrive at the correct pronunciation for each word.

5.f) Pronounces medial C digraphs as single consonant sounds.

In multisyllable words, as in one-syllable words, a consonant digraph is a clue to a single consonant sound, with the exception of *ng* in certain words. The following words show consonant digraphs in medial positions in words of more than one syllable. They may be used for reviewing the consonant sounds represented by digraphs.

ch
anchovy
archer
bachelor
duchess
exchange
hatchet
merchandise
merchant
pitcher
purchase

ph
aphid
camphor
dolphin
elephant
emphasize
geography
nephew
philosophy
Stephen
sulphur
telephone

sh
ashamed
disheveled
fashion
marshal
marshmallow
mushroom
usher
Washington
workshop

th (unvoiced)
anthem
apathy
author
cathedral
cathode
crysanthemum
enthusiasm
ether
healthy
mathematics
method
nothing
panther
wealthy

th (voiced)
another
bother
brother
either
father
gather
heather
lather
mother
neither
other
rather
rhythm
swarthy
tether
together
weather
whether
wither
worthy

Ordinarily the consonant digraph *ng*, which appears only in final position in one syllable words, represents the single nasal consonant /ŋ/.

In base words of more than one syllable containing medial *ng*, this combination represents two different consonant sounds. The *n* represents the nasal consonant /ŋ/, and the *g* represents /g/. Thus two medial consonant sounds are heard in:

anger /aŋ-gər/
angle
anguish
bungalow
bungle

dangle
hunger
language
linger
mingle
single

On the other hand, in words consisting of a base ending in *ng* plus a suffix, *ng* represents the usual single consonant sound /ŋ/:

banging
hanger (also *hangar*)
longing (but not *longer* and *longest*)
ringlet
singer
singing
Washington

ACTIVITIES

Review the pronunciation of initial and final consonant digraphs in one syllable words. Use examples of words from the above lists to illustrate the pronunciation of medial digraphs in words of more than one syllable.

5.g) When a word ends in C + *le*, uses spelling pattern as a guide to pronouncing stressed first syllable, and pronounces last syllable as consonant + /l/ or /əl/.

If a word ends in a consonant letter + *le*, the final speech syllable is unstressed and consists of the consonant sound plus /l/ or /əl/. In print, the word is divided before the final consonant letter preceding *le*. The rest of the word preceding the cut will resemble a familiar spelling pattern – either CVC, as in *can dle*; or CV, as in *la dle*. Thus knowing the spelling pattern for the first syllable and knowing that the last syllable is unstressed and is pronounced with /l/ or /əl/ gives clues to the pronunciation of the word. Some words which may be used to demonstrate this pattern are:

ample
beetle
bundle
cycle
eagle
dwindle
handle
ladle
nimble
noble
people
poodle
purple
ramble
rifle
simple
startle
table
temple
title
tremble
trouble
turtle
twinkle
uncle

The combination *ck* represents a single sound; it ends the first syllable and thus signals a short vowel.

buck le
freck le
pick le
tack le
tick le

ACTIVITIES

Put some of the above words on the board, and have children inspect the spelling and look at the way the words are represented in the pronunciation respellings of dictionaries or basal reader glossaries. Help children to arrive at a generalization concerning the unaccented second syllable. If they notice the syllabic consonant in some glossaries or dictionaries, point out that there are two ways of representing the pronunciation of the final unaccented syllable, /l/ and /əl/.

5.h) Decodes words in which adjacent V letters represent two vowel sounds in separate syllables

The principle of one vowel sound to a syllable is helpful in reading words with adjacent vowel letters that are in different syllables and therefore represent two sounds. Some of these will be readily evident because they do not follow patterns found in one-syllable words. For example, *ia* and *io* are not vowel letter combinations that ordinarily represent one sound. Therefore, each letter represents a vowel sound that is the nucleus of a syllable in words like *lion, violet, riot, trial, giant.*

There are other words, particularly when prefixes ending in vowels have been added to base words, where two adjacent vowel letters may appear to represent one sound but actually represent two. For example, when first encountering the vowel letter combinations listed below, the child's first impulse may be to try to read them as one syllable:

coaxial
coagulate
deity
dais
duet
diet
pliers
piety
create
react
fluid
ruin
cooperate
reentry
preempt
reedit
reelect
reignite
reuse
zoology

ACTIVITIES

If children have difficulty with such words, help them remember the generalization that each syllable has a vowel sound. If the vowel letter combination does not work as one vowel sound, try reading it as two sounds in separate syllables.

The problem may be one of lack of discrimination or of reversals. Give exercises requiring discrimination between words like *quite-quiet, trial-trail, gain-giant, pliers-pier, create-cream-great, fuel-feud-feel, ruin-rain, reelect-reel-reed, lion-loin, riot-toil-boil.*

5.i) Combines pronounced syllables and adjusts pronunciation to produce a word with sounds and stress heard in normal speech

In the previous sections, it was suggested that to recognize multisyllabic words a child look for written syllables that resemble familiar spelling patterns of one-syllable words. Pronouncing a multisyllabic word with equal stress on each syllable and with the vowel sounds heard in similiar one-syllable words, however, may result in a pronunciation very different from the actual sound of the word as heard within the context of normal speech; and the child still may not perceive the word. In order to put the syllables together and arrive at a recognizable word, he needs to realize three things. First, some syllables are stressed and others are unstressed; and the stress placement varies in English words. Second, in an unstressed syllable, the vowel may be a schwa or may be lost altogether in a vowelless syllable, when the word is spoken in the context of normal speech. Third, the consonant sounds of words uttered in normal speech may be different from what the consonant letters suggest when the word is pronounced syllable by syllable. Understanding these principles is necessary to arrive at normal pronunciation of words like the following:

palace – The last syllable is not pronounced like *ace*; vowel is a schwa.

mountain, obtain – In print, these would be divided to give a last syllable resembling *rain*; to arrive at normal pronunciation one must recognize the different stress placement and the schwa in the second syllable of *mountain*.

banana, gorilla – To arrive at normal pronunciation, one must recognize the vowel sound in the first and last syllables as the schwa.

educate – Syllabication results in *ed u cate;* in normal speech the *d* represents /j/ and the *u* represents /ə/; and what we say is /ˈej-ə-kāt/, according to the dictionary.

actual – Syllabication results in *ac tu al*; if pronounced rapidly as in normal speech, the second consonant is /ch/ or /sh/; the final vowel is a schwa; and there may be either two or three syllables: /ˈak-ch(-əw)əl/ or /ˈaksh-wəl/.

Opinions differ as to the value of teaching generalizations about stress. The teacher may wish to consider the usefulness to particular children of those given here:

(1) In compound words, the primary stress usually falls within the first word.

(2) In two-syllable words, the stress usually falls on the first syllable.

(3) When the final syllable resembles the VC + *e* or CVVC pattern, the final syllable *may* be stressed – particularly if the first syllable is a prefix. (*cartoon; repeat; contain,* but not *fountain* or *bargain; inflate, berate,* but not *pirate, climate; mature,* but not *nature)*

(4) Adding a derivational suffix may change the stress as well as the part of speech. (*inform–information; continent–continental; catastrophe–catastrophic*)

ACTIVITIES

As the goal is to help children develop skill in recognizing unfamiliar words in print, there is little profit in assigning syllabication of long lists of words they already can read. It is not recommended that the teacher make up lists of nonsense words for children to divide into syllables. Such nonsense words may not follow the normal patterns of English spelling. Since they have no meaning, it is impossible to identify parts of nonsense words as bases and affixes; consequently, trying to break them into syllables can be a confusing activity.

At first glance, the word recognition activities described in section 5 may seem complicated. However, if the adult reader will think about how he recognizes and pronounces unfamiliar words in print, he will probably realize that he uses some of the same cues that have been suggested here, although he may not know exact rules, may not remember and apply them precisely, and may not be conscious of applying them.

A child can learn much about his language through class discussion. He will become aware of the imperfect correspondence between speech and writing and of the necessity of experimenting with stress and pronunciation with unfamiliar words until he arrives at the word which fits both spelling pattern and context. He should also be aware that generalizations about vowels, consonants, syllables, and stress patterns are not infallible rules that will work with all words but that they will work often enough to provide a useful tool for word recognition. If his attention is drawn to them whenever the opportunity presents and need is indicated, they may become internalized to the point at which he will draw upon them automatically when necessary, without being consciously aware that he is doing so, much as adults do when they read.

An interested teacher can increase children's awareness of patterns of pronunciation and stress in long English words by calling attention to interesting words as they come up in classroom situations and by promoting discussions designed to lead to discovery about words. Above all, the teacher should try to create a classroom environment in which words are considered not only as useful tools but also as intriguing things to be thoroughly enjoyed.

6. Decodes abbreviations

Abbreviations fall into a class by themselves rather than under structural analysis, as the child in recognizing an abbreviation does not take it apart as he does a compound word or a contraction. The cues of period and in some cases capitalization help him to recognize abbreviations. The beginning reader will probably run across the abbreviations *Mr., Mrs.,* and *Dr.* in very easy books, preprimers, and primers. He will learn to recognize these at sight, using the cues of capital letter and period. Later he will learn the abbreviations for days of the week, months of the year, parts of addresses such as St. and Ave., name of states, and common measurement terms. Abbreviations are unit symbols for words (logograms) rather than phonemic combinations; and the period is an indication that they are to be read as a symbol for a whole word rather than being read phonemically. (Exceptions are *a.m.* and *p.m.*, which are now read as letters instead of as "ante meridiem" and "post meridiem.") Some abbreviations omit the last part of the word (*Mon., Oct.*), some omit the middle of the word (*Mr., pt.*), and some bear no resemblance to the word (*lb.*).

ACTIVITIES

Since abbreviations are not read phonemically with a left-to-right letter pattern matched to a left-to-right sound pattern, children will learn to recognize them as whole units at sight. Abbreviations of names of days of the week and months can be taught along with the complete words in daily activities with the calendar, children's birthdays, and children's writing activities. Other abbreviations can be taught as needed through games and activities such as those suggested in section 1.

7.a) Uses context (semantic clues) to anticipate and verify recoding of printed words into spoken words

Using context clues involves a combination of syntactic and semantic clues. Although it is not possible to separate them completely, in this section we are concerned chiefly with semantic clues – those derived from the meaning of other words in the passage (sentence or paragraph).

ACTIVITIES

The teacher may discuss with the children the fact that when they do not know the meaning of a word they encounter in their reading, other words in the sentence or paragraph which they do know (either from their own experiences or from previous reading) may often give them clues as to the meaning of the unknown word. As an example, a sentence like the following might be put on the board or on a chart:

> As I walked through the snow-covered pine forest, I suddenly came face-to-face with a huge________.

Ask the children what kind of word the missing word would be? The word *a* is a syntactic clue indicating that it will be a noun, the name of something. Ask for a few suggestions and write them on the board. Add the following if they are not suggested: *gorilla, bear, building, squirrel, cactus, elephant, mountain, mouse, deer, moose, wolf, man, mountain lion.* Ask the children to read the sentence again to decide which words would not fit the context and why. "Snow-covered" would eliminate *gorilla, cactus,* and *elephant.* "Huge" eliminates *squirrel* and *mouse.* "Suddenly came face-to-face" would make *building* and *mountain* unlikely. Only *bear, deer, moose, wolf, man,* and *mountain lion* are left. Ask the children what clues they could look for in the letters of the word itself. These include the beginning consonant letters *b, d, m,* or *w*; the CVC pattern of *man*; the final consonant cluster in *wolf*; and the medial vowel letter pairs in *beer, deer, moose,* and *mountain lion.* Ask them to watch as you put up the correct letters *m o o* and see how soon they can tell which word is correct. After the initial *m*, let them eliminate *bear, deer,* and *wolf*; after the second letter, they will eliminate *man*; and after the third letter they will determine that the correct word is *moose*. Ask them to read the next sentence and explain whether it confirms that *moose* is the correct word.

> It glared at me, pawed the ground with its hoofs, shook its antlers angrily, then turned and______ silently into the shadowy forest.

Help them to see that although *deer* would fit the context, *moose* is the only word that fits both context and spelling clues.

The same kind of exercise may be done with the missing word in the second sentence. Ask what kind of word it would be. Its position in the sentence and the fact that it is joined by *and* to the verb *turned* are syntactic clues indicating that it is a verb. What meaning will it probably have? It will mean a way in which an animal moves. Ask for suggestions, and add the following if they are not suggested: *walked, ran, trotted, galloped, crawled, crashed, disappeared, vanished, flew, slipped.* Ask which of these words would not be appropriate? The word "silently" would eliminate *galloped* and *crashed*. "Moose" would eliminate *crawled* and *flew*. The word *slipped* may cause some disagreement; try to establish that one of its meanings is appropriate in this context. Erase the eliminated words, and ask the children to study the words that are left and think of the spelling clues they would look for in determining the correct word. If the children have very good recoding skills, perhaps all of the words could be erased and the children could be asked to visualize the words and tell what clues they would look for: the CVC pattern in *ran* and *vanished*, the beginning consonant clusters and doubled consonant letters in *trotted* and *slipped*, and the prefix of *disappeared.* Write *vanished* in the blank, and have the entire passage read to see whether it makes sense.

This kind of exercise can be done at almost any level, if the sentences and vocabulary are drawn from what the children are reading and are appropriate to their level of reading skill. Some simpler sentences which might be used with readers who do not have the background and skill for reading the sentences about the moose are:

Janie_____her hat on the bed.

Jimmy felt_____as he went home from the pool after_____the_____.

Peter_____down the street in his_____.

Susan put on her prettiest_____for the party.

Mother_____the chocolate_____and gave some to each child.

I had a_____cake with seven candles at my party.

Mary was happy to see her_____again, when she came home from camp.

The clown entered the ring riding on a small_____. A little_____rode with him. The_____laughed happily as they watched the clown's funny_____.

The following exercise involves using the skills of anticipating a word from context, looking for a familiar spelling pattern in the first syllable of a word., and adjusting the pronunciation of an unstressed final syllable, in order to arrive at an appropriate word.

Put some of the following words on the board. Put the sentences on a chart or on a ditto sheet. Read one of the sentences and ask the children what words they might expect to find in the blanks. Ask a child to combine the syllable from the first column with one from the second column to make a word that fits the context of the sentence.

ar	tist	The_____painted a beautiful picture.
	my	The general led his_____into battle.
bur	lap	We put_____on the bulletin board.
	den	The donkey carried a heavy_____.
can	cel	The post office will_____the stamp.
	dy	Peppermint is my favorite_____.
cap	sule	The space_____headed for the moon.
	tain	The_____guided his ship through the fog.

can	teen	I filled my____with water before I started to hike.
	ter	A slow gallop is called a____.
car	pet	I ran the vacuum cleaner over the____.
	nival	I like to ride the ferris wheel at the____.
car	go	The ship carried a____of oil.
	ton	We made a puppet theater from a big cardboard____.
cir	cle	We sat in a____, while the teacher read to us.
	cus	I laughed at the clowns at the____.
con	cert	I enjoyed the music at the____.
	test	My friend won a prize in the poster____.
cur	sive	We are learning to do____writing.
	tain	When the____opened, the play began.
cen	sus	The government counts the total number of people in a____.
	ter	I went to the art____to paint a picture.
can	vas	We went camping in a tent made of heavy____.
	yon	The cowboys rode into a deep____to look for the cattle.
con	demn	The jury will decide whether to free or____the prisoner.
	duct	I would like to____an orchestra.
cor	ner	I will meet you at the____of Elm and Maple Streets.
	net	My brother plays a____.
el	der	Mary is the____of the two sisters.
	bow	I hit my____on the door.
em	ber	The fire was nearly out, except for one glowing____.
	blem	The flag is an emblem of our country.

ex	pert	My father is an____chess player.
	tra	You may have the____piece of cake.
gar	bage	We should not leave____at the picnic grounds.
	ter	The____snake is a harmless reptile.
gar	den	I like to grow flowers in my____.
	ment	When the beggar threw off his ragged____, he was dressed as a king.
har	ness	A pony wears a____when he pulls a cart.
	poon	The Eskimo threw his____at the whale.
mur	der	The wicked queen wanted to____Snow White.
	mur	The voices of the crowd fell to a low____.
or	der	The waiter took my____for lunch.
	gan	My sister plays the piano and the____.
ob	ject	We found a strange-looking____lying on the ground.
	serve	The magician told the audience to____carefully what he did.
par	don	The judge decided to____the prisoner.
	ty	Twelve children cam to my birthday____.
pas	tel	____colors are light.
	ture	The cows are in the____.
pen	cil	I need to sharpen my____before I start to write.
	dant	The princess wore a diamond-shaped____on a gold chain.
mon	grel	Spot is the best dog in the world, even though he is a______ without a pedigree.
	goose	An animal fast enough to kill a cobra is the____of India.
per	mit	We need a____in order to use the campgrounds.
	son	My mother is a wonderful____.

pic	nic	We toasted marshmallows at the____.
	ture	I drew a____to illustrate my story.
pur	chase	I went to the store to____a notebook.
	ple	My favorite color is____.
sym	bol	The bald eagle is a____of America.
	pathy	I felt____for the injured dog.
tem	po	The music was played at a fast____.
	ple	We went to services in the____.
tex	tile	Cotton is a____used to make clothing and many other things.
	ture	Tree bark may have a rough or a smooth____.
um	brella	I carry an____when it looks like rain.
	pire	The____called the runner safe at third.
win	dow	Robby looked out the____at the rain.
	ter	We like to play in the snow in____.
con	centration	Studying requires great____.
	densation	On a cold day you may see____of moisture on the windowpane.

The word parts could also be put on cards to be combined in various games and activities.

In any activity like the above involving context, it is essential that children know the meaning of the words. Therefore, the teacher should make sure that either the word options are already in the child's oral vocabulary, or that the child has the necessary dictionary skills to look up meanings, or that the necessary help with meanings is provided.

7.b) Uses context (semantic clues) to hypothesize meaning of word not in oral vocabulary

ACTIVITIES

This skill involves words which the child is able to recode using his knowledge of common sound-spelling relationships, but which have no meaning for him. In the following sample activity, nonsense words have been used. If the teacher makes up similiar nonsense words, he should make sure that they follow common spelling and structural patterns of English words so that the child can pronounce them according to the patterns he has learned. Then he can be encouraged to speculate as to what the words might mean, using the semantic clues given by the meaning of other words in the sentence or paragraph.

> The brantacole shook its great antlers and stamped its hoofs. Then it turned and greeped noisily into the forest.
>
> What words give you clues as to what a *brantacole* might be?
>
> How do you visualize its size and appearance?
>
> What words suggest what *greeped* might mean?
>
> The brantacole lay quietly in the tall grass, watching with narrowed, yellow eyes, as the herd of deer moved closer. Its spotted coat was almost invisible in the pattern of light and shadows. Only an occasional twitch of its tail revealed its presence. Suddenly, as one of the deer came near, the brantacole greeped toward its intended prey.
>
> Now how do you visualize a brantacole?
>
> What clues tell you what it might be?
>
> What clues tell you what *greeped* might mean?

7.c) Uses context (semantic clues) to decode homographs

Homographs (words which differ in meaning but not in spelling) may or may not have different pronunciations. The following are some examples of words which have the same pronunciation but different meanings, and which, in many cases, are different parts of speech:

bat
bay
cow
fair
jack
jam
light
lap
mail
match
nap
pen
pluck
ring
rung
stamp
train
trip
truck
watch

A difference in pronunciation of some homographs signals the difference in meaning as well as the difference between noun and verb or adjective and verb:

Differ in vowel sound	Differ in final consonant phoneme (/s/ to /z/)	Differ in stress placement
wind	close	address
bow	excuse	conduct
lead	use	conflict
read	house	console
tear		content
dove		contract
wound		desert
live		import
row		object
sow		permit
		present
		rebel
		record
		refuse

ACTIVITIES

Write on the board a sentence like the following, and ask the children what it means:

> On the table was a box full of bats.

Help them to see that since *bats* has several meanings, they can't really tell what the sentence means. Add the following sentences, and ask how each one makes the meaning clear:

> I picked one up and swung it at an imaginary ball.
> I opened it, and they flew out in all directions.

Write the following words on the board, and put the two paragraphs on a chart or ditto sheet:

clearing
current
desert
fall
hard
light
live
lodge
log
place
still
watch
wind
way

Ask the children what the above words mean. Help them to see that the meaning of each would depend on the passage in which the word appears. Then ask them to determine the meaning of the words in each of the paragraphs; give whatever help with meaning is necessary, since different children will bring different understandings to such a reading activity.

> As I walked through the forest, I came to a clearing where beavers were building a dam across a small stream. Since I have always lived in a desert area, I had never seen a pond where beavers live. They gnaw tree trunks with their hard, sharp front teeth until the trees fall. Then they drag the trees into the water and, with the help of the current, lodge them against the logs already in position. After about an hour I went on my way, because I wanted to find a good place to camp while it was still light. After supper I sat on a big log by the fire, thinking about the beavers, until it was time to wind my watch and go to bed.
>
> As I walked through the forest, I came to a pond where beavers were building a lodge. As observing animals is one of my current hobbies and I had never seen a real live beaver before, I stopped to watch the way they work. They worked very hard, cutting down trees with their sharp front teeth and dragging them into the water. They used their paws to place the trees in position. I knew that they would not desert their task until their snug underwater home was finished before the coming of cold weather in the fall. After about an hour, I went on to camp, where I fixed myself a light supper. After clearing away the supper dishes, I wrote in my log. The evening air was still, with no wind stirring, and I sat by the fire a long time before going to bed.

Put on the board a sentence containing a homograph and several meanings. Let the children choose the correct meaning.

The bay of the hounds was heard over the moors.

bay – reddish brown
    a shrub or tree
    a part of a building, ship, or airplane
    barking in prolonged tones
    the position of one unable to retreat and forced to face danger
    an inlet of the sea

Ask children to write sentences using a homograph like *bay* or *beat* with as many different meanings as possible.

Let children choose a homograph and make a poster illustrating its different meanings.

7.d) Uses context (semantic clues) to decode homophones

The great number of homophone pairs in English results in large part from the contrasting spelling patterns described in section 3. It was noted that there are many word pairs having the same vowel sound represented by a vowel letter plus final *e* and by a pair of vowel letters. A combination of spelling clues and semantic clues are used in reading such words.

Some common homophones from which a teacher may select examples suitable for the particular children she is teaching are:

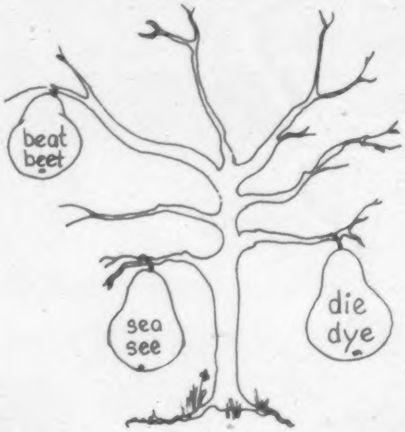
aloud	allowed	hall	haul
altar	alter	hay	hey
ate	eight	hew	hue
ail	ale	hole	whole
beach	beech	liar	lyre
bear	bare	lie	lye
beat	beet	lone	loan
blue	blew	leak	leek
bow	bough	led	lead
bore	boar	made	maid
ball	bawl	mail	male
by	buy	main	mane
base	bass	mold	mould
bin	been	nay	neigh
boy	buoy (varies)	need	knead
birth	berth	night	knight
capital	capitol	no	know
cereal	serial	not	knot
coarse	course	our	hour
cellar	seller	past	passed
colonel	kernel	paws	pause
council	counsel	peer	pier
creak	creek	pain	pane
dear	deer	principal	principle
doe	dough	pride	pried
die	dye	pale	pail
feet	feat	pour	pore
flower	flour	peal	peel
flee	flea	pray	prey
fur	fir	pole	poll
great	grate	peak	peek
grizzly	grisly	profit	prophet
genie	Jeannie	sum	some
gnome	Nome	sun	son
groan	grown	rung	wrung
herd	heard	ring	wring
here	hear	rough	ruff
hoarse	horse	roe	row

rap	wrap	tear	tier
root	route	through	threw
tail	tale	there	their
role	roll	tide	tied
red	read	toe	tow
reed	read	throne	thrown
sale	sail	veil	vale
sore	soar	way	weigh
seen	scene	wear	ware
see	sea	won	one
slay	sleigh	wood	would
stare	stair	weather	whether
stationary	stationery	wrote	rote
symbol	cymbal	weak	week

do	dew	due (varies)
knew	new	gnu
meat	meet	mete
rain	rein	reign
right	write	wright
sent	scent	cent
so	sew	sow
to	too	two
aisle	isle	I'll
road	rode	rowed
for	four	fore
flew	flu	flue
pair	pear	pare
sees	seas	seize
sense	cents	scents
there	their	they're

ACTIVITIES

One way of making children aware of the differences in homophones is to put a large paper tree on the bulletin board and label it "Pair Tree." Children enjoy cutting out construction paper pears, printing pairs of homophones on them, and hanging them on the tree.



Pairs of homophones may be put on cards for matching games like Concentration (see the games described in section 3). The child should give the meaning or an example of the use of each homophone in order to keep the pair of cards.

Present pairs of sentences, illustrated with pictures if appropriate; and let children select the correct word.

The *grizzly* is fierce when he is angry.
His bloodied face had a *grisly* appearance.

Put the book *there* on the table.
They put *their* books on the table.

Many of the jokes and riddles that children enjoy are based on puns involving homophones. The alert teacher can watch for or create opportunities to capitalize on this interest in plays on words in order to further children's language understandings.

8.a) Uses word order clues to meaning

The strongest syntactical clue to meaning is word order, the sequence in which words are arranged in sentences.

> Basic American English word order is quite rigid and arbitrary, despite its capability of a great variety of sentence constructions. Sentence variety is achieved almost exclusively through expansion and substitution within essentially rigid grammatical and syntactical structures. . . .[10]

Basic English sentences consist of a noun function and verb function; the pattern may be completed with a direct object, indirect object, object complement, adverb, or prepositional phrase. The principal sentence patterns are listed below.

Noun	**Verb**	**(Adverb or Adjective)**
Birds	fly.	
Martha	reads.	
Martha	is reading.	
Children	sing.	
The children	were singing.	
Birds	fly	high.
Martha	reads	well.
The children	were singing	sweetly.
The box	arrived	empty.
The dog	went	hungry.

Noun	**Verb**	**Noun**
Children	are making	valentines.
Jim	wrote	a letter.
The teacher	rang	the bell.

Noun	**Verb**	**Noun**	**Noun**
Mary	sent	Sue	the book.
Bob	gave	Laddie	his dinner.
Sally	fed	her pony	oats.
The class	elected	Tom	president.
Carol	named	her cat	Tiger.
The team	chose	John	captain.

Noun	**Verb**	**Noun**	**Adjective**
The class	drove	the teacher	crazy.
Father	painted	the house	white.
Jealousy	made	the queen	unhappy.

---

[10] Carl A. Lefevre, *Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964), p. 80.

Noun	Linking Verb	Noun
Fluffy	is	my dog.
Dinosaurs	were	reptiles.
My teacher	is	Mrs. Brown.

Noun	Linking Verb	Adjective
Snow	is	soft.
The bird	was	yellow.
Lions	are	wild.

Noun	Linking Verb	Adverb
The sun	is	up.
Our friends	are	here.
Jerry	is	outside.

Noun	Linking Verb	Phrase
Sally	is	at school
The dog	is	under the bed.
Dinner	is	on the table.

Basic sentences may be expanded:

Martha reads at home every day after school.
The big box arrived at our house empty.
The children made colorful valentines in school last week.
Jim wrote a letter to his grandmother after his birthday.

Variants of basic sentences are called transformations. The principal ones are:

1) Passive sentences:

Valentines were made by the children.
The bell was rung by the teacher.
Sue was sent the book by Mary.
The book was sent (to) Sue by Mary.
The pony was fed oats by Sally.
Oats were fed (to) the pony by Sally.
Tom was elected president by the class.
John was chosen captain by the team.

(The *by* phrase may be omitted.)

2) *There* and *It* sentences:

There was an old woman who lived in a shoe.
There are two birds in the tree.
It is raining today.
It is fun to read.

'Twas the night before Christmas. . .
. . .there arose such a clatter,
My country, 'tis of thee. . .

It's not that I don't like teaching.
It's just that I need a vacation.
It wasn't like him to forget his work.
It happened that we arrived just as they were leaving.

3) Questions (signalled by inverted word order and beginning with forms of *be, have, do, can, may,* and other auxiliaries, or with question words):

Is he there?
Is Sally feeding the pony?
Does the dog bark?
Are lions wild?
Where is the dog?
What do you wish to know?
Have I your permission?
Did Bob give Laddie his dinner?

4) Requests and commands:

Commands and requests differ from each other not so much in basic language patterns as in paralinguistic and kinesic characteristics. Both normally begin with the base form of the verb, though formal-courtesy words and phrases may mark the pattern variant as a request instead of an order or command.[11]

Erase the blackboard.
Please erase the blackboard.
Will you please erase the blackboard?
Let me hear from you.
Do let me hear from you.
Please let me hear from you.
Will you please let me hear from you?

ACTIVITIES

As a child finishes reading a primer or other short, easy book, type on small cards, using a primary typewriter, all of the words from the book. Supply duplicates of each word and an assortment of punctuation marks. Give a set to the child, and let him sort the words into sentences. When he is satisfied with his sentences and has checked them with the teacher, he pastes them on a sheet of paper and illustrates them.

The following activity combines auditory and visual clues. Use words from a commercial sentence-building kit or print words on cards. Make up several sentences using the words, print them on a strip of paper, and put them on tape. Put the cards and the sentence strips in an envelope. Let a child listen to one of the sentences on tape while he reads it on the strip, then reproduce the sentence by combining the word cards. When a child has demonstrated that he can make and read all of the sentences in a particular envelope, he becomes responsible for that envelope and for checking the work of other children as they use that envelope.

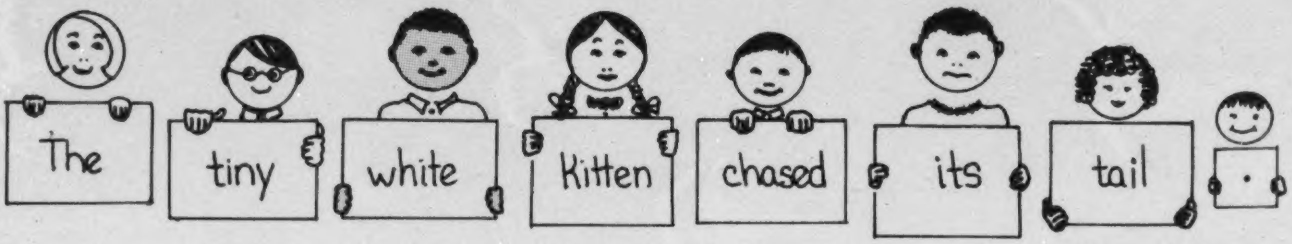
---

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 103.

Write the sentence: *The tiny white kitten* _____. Ask the children what kind of word they think would come next. Ask what words tell what kittens can do (*play, walk, run, meow, purr, cry, jump, chase, eat, drink, scamper, tumble, sleep*). Add an appropriate verb; then ask what other words or phrases could be added to expand the sentence still further (*played with the yarn, chased its tail, purred happily*, etc.) Do the same with other patterns, such as *My pet is a* _____.

Print sentences from *What Do You Say, Dear?* by Sesyle Joslin, on oak tag strips. Read the questions, and let the child holding the appropriate strip read the answer. If available, use the record which accompanies the book in the *Scott, Foresman Second Talking Storybook Box.*

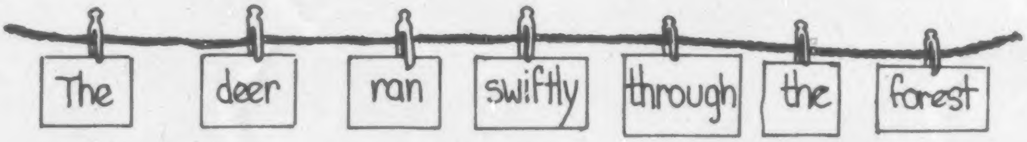
Put a sentence on an oak tag sentence strip. Cut up the words and give them to different children. Read the sentence and ask the children holding the words to arrange themselves in the correct sentence order. The rest of the class will read the sentence to see whether it is correct. This could be played as a game with two teams to see which team could line up correctly first. A more difficult task would be to give the teams more words than were used in any one sentence, so that the children would have to decide which words would come to the front for a particular sentence. Another variation would be to read a transformation – a passive sentence, question, or command, which would require the children to vary both word order and punctuation in arranging themselves.



Write on the board the basic noun and verb, such as *deer ran.* Ask questions; and as the children supply answers, expand the sentence. For example:

What ran?	The deer ran.
Where did he run?	The deer ran through the forest.
What kind of deer was he?	The frightened deer ran through the forest.
How did he run?	The frightened deer ran swiftly through the forest.
Which one word can be moved to different places in the sentence?	Swiftly the frightened deer ran through the forest. The frightened deer swiftly ran through the forest. The frightened deer ran through the forest swiftly.
Now change the main words to create a new sentence while keeping the same word order.	The hungry lion crept stealthily through the grass. The old car chugged slowly up the mountain road.
Change the sentence to a question.	Why did the frightened deer run swiftly through the forest?

Some teachers put these words on cards and pin them to a clothesline with clothespins as the children expand the sentences.



Suggestions for helping children rearrange, transform, expand, and reduce sentences may be found in the Teacher's Editions of the *Sounds of Language Readers*. For children who need basic oral language experiences with sentence patterns, the language development materials listed in Appendix B contain helpful materials and suggestions.

In using any of the above activities, it should be remembered that the purpose is not to teach formal grammar but to give children clues to common sentence patterns so that they will recognize them and read them with understanding.

8.b) Uses inflectional and derivational contrasts to derive meaning

Suffixes and prefixes were discussed in section 4 as structural clues to word recognition. The reader must go beyond recognizing affixes as clues to pronunciation. He uses them as clues to the meaning of a phrase or sentence. He will understand the difference in meaning between the two nearly identical sentences, *He likes it* and *He liked it,* from the change in the verb inflection. From the change in the derivational suffix he will understand that, *He was thankful* means the opposite of *He was thankless.*

The most important inflectional and derivational suffixes were listed in section 4, and the meanings of the most common prefixes were given. Activities designed to make children aware of syntactical clues to sentence meaning may use some of these examples. For younger children or children with limited skill in recognizing structural parts of words, it would be appropriate to use activities involving words with free bases that can stand alone as words (*untie, joyful*). More advanced readers will encounter many words with bound bases such as *-clude,* to which a variety of prefixes may be added (*conclude, exclude, include, occlude, preclude, seclude*). On the next few pages is a list of such bound bases or roots from Greek and Latin, with meanings and examples, which the teacher may find useful.

GREEK ROOTS

ROOT	MEANING	EXAMPLES
-agog-	lead, leader	pedagogue, synagogue, demagogue
-anthrop-	man, mankind	philanthropic, anthropology, misanthrope
-arch-	ancient, chief	archaic, archaeology, monarch
-astr- aster-	star	astral, astrology, asterisk
-auto-	self-	automaton, autonomy, autocratic
-biblio-	book	Bible, bibliophile, bibliography
-bio-	life	amphibious, biology, autobiography
-chrom-	color	chromatic, chromosome, panchromatic
-chron-	time	chronometer, synchronize, anachronistic
-cosm-	order, world	cosmology, cosmic, microcosm
-crac- -crat-	power, rule	democracy, autocracy, aristocrat
-crypt-	secret, hidden	cryptic, cryptogram, cryptography
-cycl-	wheel, circle	tricyle, cyclic, cyclone
-dem-	people	democracy, demagogue, epidemic
-derm-	skin	epidermis, hypodermic, dermatology
-dox-	belief, teaching	orthodox, doxology, heterodox
-dyn-	force, power	heterodyne, dynamic, dynasty
-erg-	work,	erg, energy, energetic
-gam-	mate, marry	gamete, monogamous, bigamy
-gen-	kind, race	genesis, genealogy, eugenics
-geo-	earth	geography, geology, geometry
-gon-	corner, angle	diagonal, polygon, trigonometry

ROOT	MEANING	EXAMPLES
-gram-	write, writing	telegram, grammar, epigram
-graph-	write, writing	graphite, orthography, geography
-heli-	sun	heliotropism, helium, heliocentric
-hem-	blood	hemorrhage, hemoglobin, hemophilia
-hetero-	other, different	heterogeneous, heterodox, heterodyne
-homo-	same	homogeneous, homonym, homograph
-hydr-	water	dehydrate, hydrogen, hydrant
-iatr-	heal, cure	iatric, geriatrics, psychiatry
-iso-	same, equal	isosceles, isotherm, isotope
-lith-	rock	monolithic, neolithic, lithography
-log-	speech, word, study,	epilogue, logarithm, theology
-mega-	large, enlargement	megaphone, megalomania, megaton
-metr- -meter-	measure	diameter, metronome, trigonometry
-micr-	small	microbe, microscope, micrometer
-mon-	one, single	monogamy, monotonous, monologue
-morph-	form	morphology, morpheme, metamorphosis
-necr-	die, dead	necrology, necrotic, necromancy
-neo-	new	neologism, neolithic
-nom-	law, rule	autonomy, economy, metronome
-onym-	name	anonymous, pseudonym, synonym
-orth-	straight, correct	orthodox, orthography, orthodontist
-pan-	all, entire	panorama, pandemonium, panacea
-path-	feeling, suffering	psychopath, apathy, sympathy

ROOT	MEANING	EXAMPLES
-ped-	child	orthopedic, pediatrician, pedagogue
-phil-	like, love	philanthropic, bibliophile, philosophy
-phon-	sound	phonetics, phonology, euphony
-phor-	bear, bearing	semaphore, phosphorus, euphoria

LATIN ROOTS

ROOT	MEANING	EXAMPLES
-ced- -ceed- -cess-	go, yield	secede, intercede, precede precedent, proceed recession, concession
-cur- -curr- -curs-	run, course	concur, recurrent, currency curriculum, cursory precursor
-dic- -dict-	say, speak, word	indicate, abdicate, diction, dictionary, contradict, predict
-fin-	end, limit	final, infinite, definitive
-gen-	birth, origin, kind	generate, progeny, generic
-mit- -miss-	send	remit, admittance, submit, missile, emissary, transmission
-pon- -pos-	place, put	postpone, component, proponent, interpose, composure, indisposed
-port-	carry	transport, porter, importation
-spec- -spic- -spect-	look, see	specimen, despicable, perspicacity, aspect, circumspect, suspect

ROOT	MEANING	EXAMPLES
-string- -strict-	bind, tight	stringent, astringent, stricture, constrict, restrict
-ceiv- -cept-	take	conceivable, deceive, receiver acceptable, concept, deception, inception, receptive
-clud- -clu-	close, shut	conclude, exclusive, include, occlusion, preclude, seclusion
-sum-	take, take up	assume, consumer, presumptuous, resumption
-sur-	secure	assure, insure
-duc- -duct-	lead	adduce, reduce, educate, conduction, abduction induction
-tent- -tens- -tend-	stretch	distend, tendency, extension, contention
-flect- -flex-	bend, twist	flexible, deflection, reflection, genuflect
-jur-	swear	conjure, adjure, perjury
-junct-	join	junction, adjunct, disjunction, injunction
-nomen- -nomin-	name	nomenclature, nominee, nominate, denominate
-anim-	mind, soul, spirit	animate, inanimate magnanimity, animosity
-annu- -anni-	year	annual, anniversary, perennial
-aqu-	water	aquatic, aqueduct, aquarium
-apt- -ept-	adjust, fit	adapt, aptitude, inept
-art-	skill, craft, art	artifacts, artifice, artisan

ROOT	MEANING	EXAMPLES
-aud- -audit-	hear	audible, audience, auditorium
-bel- bell-	war	bellicose, belligerent, rebel
-ben- -bena-	well, good	benefit, benediction, benefactor
-capit-	head	capital, per capita, decapitate
-cent-	hundred	century, centennial, centipede
-cid- -cis-	cut, kill	incision, concise, homocide, fratricide
-clar-	clear	clarify, clarity, declare
-cogn-	know, be acquainted	recognize, cognizant, incognito
-doc- -doct-	teach, prove	docile, doctrine, indoctrinate
-ego-	I, self	egoist, egotist, egocentric
-equ-	equal	equity, equinox, equilibrium
-flor-	flower	floral, florid, floriculture
-fort-	strong	fortify, fortitude, effort
-grat-	please, favor	gratitude, gratify, gratuity
-greg-	flock	congregate, aggregate, segregate
-leg-	law	legislate, legitimate, illegal
-loqu- -locut-	talk, speech	colloquial, colloquy, locution
-magn-	large	magnitude, magnanimous, magnify

ROOT	MEANING	EXAMPLES
-mal-	bad	malady, malevolent, malediction
-man- manu-	hand	manacle, manicure, manual
-mar-	sea	marine, maritime, submarine
-mater- matr-	mother	maternity, matricide, matriarchy
-medi-	middle	mediocre, mediate, medieval
-min-	less, little	minus, minimize, minority
-mob- -mot-	move	mobile, automobile, remote
-mort- -mor-	die, death	moribund, morbid, mortuary, immortal
-mor-	custom	morality, amoral, mores
-multi-	many	multitude, multiple, multifarious
-nav-	ship, sail	naval, navigate, circumnavigate
-nov-	new	novelty, innovate, renovate
-omni-	all	omnipotent, omnivorous, omniscient
-ocul-	eye	ocular, oculist, binocular
-ora-	speak, pray	orate, oratory, oracular
-orn-	decorate	ornate, adorn, ornament
-par-	equal	par, parity, compare
-pater- patri-	father	paternal, patrimony, patriotic
-ped-	foot	pedal, centipede, quadruped

ROOT	MEANING	EXAMPLES
-pot-	power	impotent, omnipotent, potentiality
-prim-	first	primer, primitive, primeval
-reg-	rule	regal, regicide, interregnum
-rupt-	break	rupture, abrupt, interrupt
-seg- -sect-	cut	segment, sector, dissect
-simil-	like	similar, similitude, assimilate
-sol-	alone	solitude, solitaire, desolate
-ten- -tin- -tent-	hold	tenure, tenant, tenet, untenable, content, continence, detention, retention
-tract-	draw, pull	traction, distract, extraction
-ven- -vent-	come, go	intervene, convene, event, prevent
-vert- -vers-	turn	convert, divert, vertical, inadvertent, aversion
-vid- -vis-	see	provident, evident, visualize, vision, television, supervisory
-ac- -acr-	sharp	acute, acrid, acumen
-agr-	field	agriculture, agronomy, agrarian
-ali-	other	alien, alibi, alias
-alter- altr-	other, change	alter, alternate, alterant
-am- amic-	love, friend	amity, amatory, amicable

ACTIVITIES

Write on the chalkboard a pair of sentences in which the only difference is in a prefix or suffix. Discuss the resulting contrast in meaning with the children.

Write on the chalkboard a sentence containing a number of inflectional and derivational affixes. Ask a volunteer to change an affix to another which is appropriate for the particular base word. After each change, discuss how the meaning of the sentence has been changed. Ask children to substitute a prefix which will change the meaning of a sentence from positive to negative or which will make the sentence mean the opposite.

Present a sentence in which a word has been omitted, and give a choice of several base words. Ask children to choose a base word and add an appropriate suffix that will change the form of the base word to the correct form for the particular slot in the sentence. For example:

The little puppy was very_____.   play   noise   hunger   live

Present a sentence containing a word with a derivational prefix or suffix, and ask children to restate the sentence in words that express the same meaning.

8.c) Uses structure words as clues to sentence meaning

In addition to the nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, all of which refer to fairly well-defined things, actions, conditions, or ideas, there is in English a group of "structure" or "function" words which do not refer to things in the real world, but which are clues mainly to sentence structure. That is, they indicate relationships among the meaningful words with which they appear. Although the great majority of words in the English language are form words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs), the most frequently used words are the relatively few structure words. Concerning their use, Thomas stated:

> Metaphorically, we can compare form and structure words to bricks and mortar. The form words . . . provide the substance of an English sentence. The structure words . . . serve primarily to give order to the substance; that is, they hold the form words together in a meaningful sequence.[12]

In addition to being small, the set of structure words is relatively closed. Although new nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs are constantly being introduced into English, the appearance of a new preposition, conjunction, or auxiliary verb would be a rare occurrence.

Structure words may be grouped according to their grammatical function. Such a grouping is given on page 13 in the list of reading skills. More complete lists, with slightly varying classifications, may be found in the following sources:

The Structure of American English, W. Nelson Francis, pp. 427-428

The Structure of English, Charles C. Fries, Chapter VI

Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading, Carl A. Lefevre, Chapter VI

Individuals' vocabularies of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs vary widely. A person's vocabulary of such words may be very limited and yet be adequate for his purposes. A knowledge of the principal structure words, however, is essential to understand, speak, read, and write English.

ACTIVITIES

Most children will be familiar with the more common structure words through their oral language experiences before they first come to school. The teacher of reading, however, cannot assume this to be true of the child who is having difficulty understanding what he is reading. Some children with limited language backgrounds may not know the meaning of *first* and *last,* of *over* and *under*, of *few* and *many*, or of *more* and *less.* When such deficiencies in understanding exist, the teacher may help children acquire these concepts through various oral and manipulative experiences. For example, various objects or the children themselves could be used to develop the meaning of prepositional phrases like "on the table," "under the table," "in the chair," "by the chair," "toward the door," "away from the door." Some of the materials listed under Language Development Materials in Appendix B may be helpful in developing such ideas. Reading aloud together with enjoyment and expression poems like Robert Louis Stevenson's "Of Speckled Eggs the Birdie Sings," John Ciardi's "The River is a Piece of Sky," and Christina Rossetti's "What is Pink?" will provide vivid examples of the use of words like *of, among, in, upon, with, or,* and *what* more meaningfully than any attempt to explain the use of prepositions, conjunctions, and question words.

---

[12] Owen Thomas, *Transformational Grammar and the Teacher of English*, (New York; Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1965), p. 53.

9. Uses typographic clues to phrase and sentence meaning

a) Spacing as a signal of structural units

Spacing separates words and enables the child to see them as entities. It also signals the difference in meaning between some compound words and the phrases which they resemble. For example, the space or lack of it signals the difference in meaning between the specific term *bluebird* – a particular species – and the general term *blue bird* – a bird of blue color.

Indentation, when used, is a clue to the paragraph as a unit. When block form is used, the extra space between paragraphs can provide a similar clue.

b) Capital letters signal the beginning of a sentence or a proper noun.

c) Punctuation

Francis divides our eleven basic punctuation marks into four groups:[13]

(1) Morphological marks (indicate meaning within words) – apostrophe, hyphen

Apostrophe marks the inflectional suffix *'s* and *s'* as distinguished from plural suffix

marks the omission of letters in contractions

Hyphen indicates certain compound words

joins in print for purposes of clarity what would be spoken as separate words. For example, the distinction of meaning between "man eating tiger" and "man-eating tiger" would be indicated by stress and juncture in speech, by hyphen in writing.

indicates division of word at end of a line of print.

(2) End marks – period, question mark, exclamation point

These marks at the ends of sentences in written language are an indication of final intonation contours in oral sentences.

(3) Internal marks – comma, semicolon, colon, dash

The use of these marks is governed by somewhat elaborate rules, but for the child learning to read it is probably sufficient at first to know that they appear within written sentences usually at points where pauses come in speech. They afford clues to phrasing and to meaning in sentences like:

The dog which was fierce was tied to a tree.

The dog, which was fierce, was tied to a tree.

---

[13] Francis, *Structure of American English*, pp. 469-479.

The boy wanted the puppy which was friendly.

The boy wanted the puppy, which was friendly.

In some basal readers, the colon marks dialog in plays.

(4) Special marks – quotation marks, parentheses

These marks make distinctions in writing that are not indicated in speech. When children are reading aloud and taking the roles of characters in a story, quotation marks signal changes from narrative to conversation and from one speaker to another.

In silent reading, the reader should recognize that parentheses surround material considered distinct from the rest of the material in which it appears.

d) Variations in type size, face, and placement

Striking examples of variation in type size, face, and placement are found in some of the newer readers such as the *Sounds of Language Readers.*

ACTIVITIES

Probably the best way to present the use of punctuation marks is through discussion as children encounter them in their reading. Understanding of the use of punctuation marks may be reinforced by using them in the activities designed to teach sentence order, described in section 8.a).

10. Reads orally to convey meaning

a) Uses context to determine intonation

b) Uses punctuation marks as signals of intonation contours

Intonation refers to the different degrees of stress, pitch, and juncture with which we speak or read aloud.

Pitch

Pitch denotes the "ups and downs" of speech. In American English, there are generally distinguished four degrees of relative pitch – low, normal, high, highest – also designated by numerals /1, 2, 3, 4/, 1 being the lowest. Generally in uttering or reading aloud a statement, the beginning normal pitch will rise a little at the point of greatest stress, then drop below normal at the end of the utterance. Thus the symbolic representation of the pitch contour for a statement would be /231/.

The same pitch contour is also heard in an oral question which begins with a question word and requires a substantive answer: "What are you going to do?" /231/

In asking a question which does not begin with a question word and which requires a yes-or-no answer, the pitch rises and is sustained at the end of the utterance. "Can you hear me?" /223/

An exclamation is uttered with a higher pitch than normal – /3/ or /4/ at the point of greatest stress in the utterance. "Look out!" /342/

Stress

There are four degrees of relative stress – heavy, medium, light, weak. There is one heavy stress in a word. Some words have a secondary stress, for example, on the first syllable of "manufacture." Normally there is also one primary stress in a phrase or sentence, usually at the end. Varying this primary stress can result in variations in meaning. Understanding these variations is one of the interpretive or paralinguistic aspects of language patterns. For example, consider the different shades of meaning achieved in stressing different words in the sentence: "Bob gave me that book."

Bob gave me that book.	(Who gave you that book?)
Bob *gave* me that book.	(Did Bob give it to you or lend it to you?)
Bob gave *me* that book.	(To whom did Bob give that book?)
Bob gave me *that* book.	(Which book did Bob give you?)
Bob gave me that *book*.	(Did Bob give you the book or the magazine?)

Juncture

Juncture refers to the different kinds of cuts (pauses) in the stream of speech as a speaker passes from one utterance (word, phrase, or sentence) to another. Linguists recognize four kinds of juncture, which may be termed open juncture, sustained or level terminal, fade-rise terminal, and fade-fall terminal.

Open juncture is a cut in the speech stream between words or between syllables in clearly articulated speech and oral reading, which separates words and syllables as a space separates words in print. It is the cut heard in noun groups like "black bird" and "night rate" which distinguishes them from "blackbird" and "nitrate." Change of placement of open juncture distinguishes "I scream" from "ice cream" in the children's jingle, "I scream, you scream, we all scream for ice cream."

Sustained or *level terminal* is a sharp cut-off of speech sound, accompanied by steady pitch and prolonging of the final sound. It sets off word groups or syntactical units within a sentence, and may be signalled by the use of commas. How long the pause lasts after the cut depends largely on how fast the speaker is talking. In slow oral reading, the pauses would be more noticeable than in rapid speech. The pitch level remains the same after the cut. It may mark such structural elements in sentences as noun groups, verb groups, prepositional phrases, clauses, and words in apposition. Its use at times is an indication of meaning; at other times, it is largely a matter of interpretation. For example, it indicates apposition in the following sentence:

> Mrs. Jones, the third grade teacher, took her class to the zoo.

Fade-rise terminal is a fading or trailing off of the voice, accompanied by rising pitch and prolonging of the final sound. It is heard:

(1) At the end of questions that do not start with question words and that require a yes-or-no answer: "Is it time to go?"

(2) After each item except the last in counting or in a series, where commas are visual clues: "One, two, three, four, five." "Dogs, cats, horses, and cows." "We had a choice of peaches, pears, or plums for dessert."

(3) After syntactical structures within sentences, such as an introductory clause or the first part of a compound sentence. Intonation includes medium or heavy stress and a rising pitch which returns to the normal pitch level of the sentence, indicating that it is not the end of the utterance, which continues immediately. "We were going to play ball, but it started to rain." "Some children made placemats, some set the table, some poured the juice, and some passed the cookies." "The Easter eggs were hidden in the grass, under the bushes, and among the tree roots." "When school is out, we will go to the beach."

Fade-fall terminal is a fadeout of the voice with lowering of pitch and prolonging of the final sound. It generally signifies the end of the utterance. It is heard:

(1) At the end of sentences marked with periods: "It is mine." "I am going home."

(2) At the end of questions that begin with question words and require substantive answers: "Whose paper is this?" "Where are you going?"

(3) At a major division in a sentence marked by a semicolon: "Such a division may also be read with a level-sustained terminal; this is largely a matter of interpretation."

Changes in pitch, stress, and juncture are involved in the children's jokes which involve converting simple questions like "What's that in the road ahead?" or "What are we going to eat, Mother?" to the macabre questions, "What's that in the road? A head?" and "What are we going to eat? Mother?" or "What! Are we going to eat Mother?"

Variation in stress, pitch, and juncture distinguishes certain compound nouns from similar noun groups (adjective + noun) and verb groups (verb + adverb or noun):

lighthouse	light house	setup	set up
bluebird	blue bird	breakdown	break down
blackboard	black board	breakthrough	break through
greenhouse	green house	touchdown	touch down
White House	white house	throwback	throw back
shortstop	short stop	playhouse	play house

Change of stress placement also differentiates between certain pairs of two-syllable words, one a noun and the other a verb. Heavy stress on the first syllable followed by weak stress and falling pitch on the second syllable signals that the word is a noun. (*The Sahara is a desert.*) Heavy stress on the second syllable and rising pitch indicates that the word is a verb. (*The soldier would not desert his post.*) A list of such words was given in section 7.c).

It must be emphasized that levels of pitch, degrees of stress, and length of juncture are not absolutes that can be measured exactly on a scale. They are relative matters that must be considered in relation to each other within the context of the entire utterance. Also, they may vary within any utterance from one individual's reading to another's interpretation.

ACTIVITIES

Since many children starting to school have already internalized to a great extent the basic structures and intonation patterns of their oral language, reading instruction should aim at developing their consciousness of how these structures and intonation patterns relate to written English. Probably the best guide for children is the teacher's own easy and natural intonation as he reads aloud to them. Including stories in which the children can follow along in their own books, anticipate the language, and chime in with refrains as the teacher reads can be helpful. Expressive reading of poetry, both individually and in choral groups, contributes to developing good expression. Choral reading may be especially helpful for the child who is too shy to read a poem aloud by himself.

In judging the quality of children's oral reading, the teacher's best guide is his own feeling for appropriate intonation. When a child reads fluently and expressively, responding to context and punctuation, that is all that is necessary. The teacher can judge that intonation is appropriate just by listening, without attempting to analyze the reading in terms of specific pitch, stress, and juncture features. The main consideration is whether the child responds to the printed page with intonation that satisfactorily conveys meaning, not whether the intonation follows exact patterns. Too, different individuals will respond with different intonation to the same passage; this may be a matter of different dialect.

Some children read orally in a monotone or merely pronounce one word after another without varying stress and pitch or grouping phrases into meaningful units. The problem may be one of lack of oral language experiences that would help develop normal intonation patterns. It may be a problem of too difficult material and insuffcent recoding skills, causing preoccupation with figuring out individual words. It may be lack of comprehension of how written sentences convey meaning. The teacher may wish to analyze the oral reading of such children more closely in the light of the discussion of intonation given above, and give them experiences that will help them to acquire more natural intonation patterns.

Such experiences for young children should begin with very simple sentences. One activity which teachers have used with success utilizes the frame covered with a plastic sheet for use on the overhead projector (described on page A-24). On the plastic sheet is printed a sequence of sentences increasing in length and varying in structure. The covering strips are made of cardboard rather than clear plastic, so that the sentences can be uncovered one at a time. For the teacher's use, each sentence is repeated on the covering cardboard strip. As the sentences are uncovered one by one, the child reads them aloud, varying the single heavy stress to suit the context. For example, a sequence might begin with the simple words *Be* or *Go*: The teacher would ask the child to read the sentences the way he would say them if he were really talking to a pet dog and wanted him to obey:

Be
Be good.
Be good, Tip.
Be a good dog.
Be a good dog and lie down.
Be a good dog while I am gone.

Go
Go home.
Go home. Tip.
Go eat your dinner.
Go and find Bob.
Go get the ball.
Go get the ball, Tip.
Go bring me the ball.
Go take the ball to Bob.
Go get the ball and bring it to me.

Different kinds of sentences may be put on a chart or the chalkboard for children to determine the appropriate intonation:

Counting rhymes: One, two, buckle my shoe,
Three, four, knock at the door.
Sentences with words in a series: We had ice cream, cake, and punch at the party.

Sentences in which commas set off clauses: I am going to the beach, but my brother is going to camp.

Sentences in which commas distinguish a restrictive from a non-restrictive clause:

> There were three puppies in a pet shop. Two just sat in a corner. The third puppy jumped around, wagged his tail, and barked at the children who stopped in front of his cage. On Timmy's birthday, his father took him to the pet shop. And what do you think? The puppy which was wagging its tail and barking went home with Timmy.
>
> There was a puppy that lived in a pet shop with his friends, a kitten, a parakeet, and a canary. They all wondered which one would find a home first. On Timmy's birthday, his father took him to the pet shop. And what do you think? The puppy, which was wagging its tail and barking, went home with Timmy.

Sentences in which a change of stress conveys a change in meaning:

> The teacher asked me to erase that word.

The teacher could ask the following questions and ask a child to read the answer with the appropriate stress:

> Who asked you to erase that word? The *teacher* asked me to erase that word.

Why are you erasing that word? The teacher *asked* me to erase that word.

Who is supposed to erase that word? The teacher asked *me* to erase that word.

Should you erase it or cross it out? The teacher asked me to *erase* that word.

Which word are you supposed to erase? The teacher asked me to erase *that* word.

Should you erase the whole sentence or just that word? The teacher asked me to erase that *word*.

If children need more visual clues to intonation, simple sentences could be written on the chalkboard with spaces setting off phrases and clauses to indicate slight pause between meaningful units. As the children determine the point of greatest stress, it could be marked with colored chalk under or over the word. Or, if the words are put on cards, as children line up to form the sentence, a child or teacher could point to or hold a hand over the head of the child holding the word to be stressed.

In conclusion, whether or not any of these activities are used, it cannot be emphasized too strongly that one of the best ways of helping children become aware of intonation patterns in oral reading is to give them many opportunities to hear the teacher read stories aloud and to participate in the reading by chiming in where appropriate.

APPENDIX B

SOME ILLUSTRATIVE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

VISUAL AND AUDITORY PERCEPTION MATERIALS

Follett Publishing Company

The Frostig Program for the Development of Visual Perception.

A corrective and preventive program for use in the regular primary classroom and in special classes for young children with learning difficulties, to provide training in visual perception. It divides visual perception into five areas:

1. Perception of position in space
2. Perception of spatial relationships
3. Perceptual constancy
4. Visual-motor coordination
5. Figure-ground perception

The child's level of performance in each of these five areas is determined by *The Marianne Frostig Developmental Test of Visual Perception.* Author cites research that shows a medium-high correlation between visual perceptual ability and reading achievement at the first grade level in public school, diminishing at higher grade levels; points out that as this correlation is slight at third grade level, the assessment of visual perceptual development by instruments such as the Frostig Test cannot be regarded as predictive of reading ability in the higher grades. Nevertheless, she deplores postponing remedial work until third grade and stresses importance of beginning without delay the remedial training of children with visual perception difficulties at kindergarten or first grade level, the period of maximum perceptual development. The author provides five sets of dittoed work sheets, each covering a particular area to be trained, and suggests their use not only in remedial programs, but also in stimulating visual perceptual development in regular kindergarten and first grade programs; in classes for children of culturally disadvantaged backgrounds; for children who are deaf, mute, or blind; and for the mentally retarded.

The teacher needs to exercise discretion in assigning the worksheets so that they are presented for a real purpose and do not become mere busywork. The work sheet exercises for developing visual perception are to be used along with activities designed to help develop perception through movement, touch, and listening. Manual suggests kinesthetic and tactile training activities and games. Points out that perceptual training should always be part of a well-rounded program of instruction and has excellent suggestions for activities, exercises, and games to help the sensory-motor training that should precede and accompany perceptual training.

Noble and Noble, Publishers, Inc.

TRY: Experiences for Young Children.

Designed by the authors to "stimulate children to explore and discover their world," this series provides experiences that are described as multi-sensory, individualized, sequential, imaginative, and success-oriented. It is divided into three stages: Task 1, Task 2, and Task 3. Each stage includes a teacher's guide, a set of manipulative materials, and an activity book divided into "visual-perceptual experiences" and "related-expressive experiences."

Task 1 materials consist of plastic geometric shapes fitted into a storage tray. They are used for various discrimination activities. Materials for Task 2 are 20 red and white plastic blocks of different designs in a tray that acts as a frame for the matching activities in the activity book. For Task 3, there are white plastic tiles printed with letters and punctuation marks. These are to be matched to printed forms in the activity book to make familiar words and also phrases that appear in the child's environment such as BUS STOP. The visual-perceptual experiences are designed to foster left-to-right and top-to-bottom progression. Simple picture cue directions enable children to proceed independently. There are provisions for checking children's progress.

Related-expressive experiences at the three task levels include language activities stimulated by picture stories, visual-motor activities, dramatic play, auditory discrimination activities, sequencing activities, and puzzles. A creative teacher can devise many additional activities using the plastic manipulative shapes and letters.

Science Research Associates, Inc.

DETECT Series

A visual perception program that uses a tachistoscopic method of presentation in conjunction with a student workbook. It aids in developing "attending" skills, ability to follow directions, and oral and expressive language abilities. It provides for symbol recognition, identification of geometric forms, understanding of spatial relationships, knowledge of the alphabet and numerals, as well as practice in seeing similarities and differences.

The materials consist of the Opta overhead projector and three levels of transparencies (A, B, C). A visual training device, the Opta, is to be used on an overhead projector. A figure is flashed on the screen for 1/25 of a second. The child finds and indicates the correct figure by marking or pointing in his workbook. There is an emphasis on the language of shapes and on position in space. The training using the Opta teaches the child to focus at a far point, to remember a flashed image, and to transfer his attention to a near point in order to locate the figure and make a correct response. The workbooks and transparencies used on the Opta become increasingly more difficult as the students progress through each book of the three levels. The materials in the workbook can be used in many additional ways to further develop the language and concepts necessary for good reading skills.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT MATERIALS

American Book Company

Dandy Dog's Early Learning Program.

This series has been used in kindergartens, Head Start programs, early first grades, programs for slow learners, and programs for non-English-speaking children. It provides activities and experiences intended to enable the very young child to develop a positive self-image, language and thinking skills, awareness and appreciation of his environment, and satisfying relationships with others. Materials include programmed learning activities, learning charts, slides, and picture books accompanied by story records. Dandy Dog, a cartoon character, encourages the children in their learning activities. The See and Say Picture Books and accompanying story records may be used to help those children who cannot read develop such skills as remembering details and telling a story in sequence. A Teacher's Handbook for the Dandy Dog Program contains very detailed suggestions for organizing the classroom; for hourly, daily, and monthly schedules of activities utilizing the Dandy Dog materials from September to June; and for evaluating each child's progress. There is also available a handbook for parents, suggesting ways in which they can reinforce the work of the school.

American Guidance Service, Inc.

Peabody Language Development Kits.

Intended to stimulate oral language and intellectual development, this program consists of four self-contained kits of materials and daily lessons. Among the two dozen or more activities that the kits are designed to stimulate are brainstorming, classification, conversation, critical thinking, describing, dramatizing, following directions, pantomiming, problem solving, rhyming, sentence building, sequencing, sound identification, and vocabulary building. All children in the class participate in the activities. There are no reading or writing activities.

Each kit contains 180 daily lessons. Some of the materials at the different levels are stimulus cards, family and home cards, story posters, color chips, puppets, plastic fruits and vegetables, a xylophone, manikins with vinyl clothing, magnetic tapes of stories and songs, and records of sounds. The manuals give detailed plans for each daily lesson.

The levels of the kits and the mental ages for which they are considered appropriate are Level No. P (mental ages 3 – 5), Level No. 1 (mental ages 4 1/2 – 6 1/2), Level No. 2 (mental ages 6 – 8), and Level No. 3 (mental ages 7 1/2 – 9 1/2). They are suggested for use with slow and disadvantaged children from kindergarten to third grade, with average and above average children from prekindergarten to second grade, and for children with different degrees of mental retardation.

Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc.

Sounds and Patterns of Language. Talking Our Way to Reading Series.

This readiness program, designed for language disadvantaged children in preschool, Head Start, kindergarten, and first grade, emphasizes oral language expression. Written language is considered a device for triggering off the sounds in which language has its reality. Reading instruction must help children develop an "ear" for language – the ability to hear what they read. If the child is familiar with the sounds of his language, the authors believe he will have little trouble in translating printed symbols into meaning.

Three levels of language are distinguished: the "in-group language" of the home, the "public language" of society, which the child learns in school, and "life-lifting language" – the "language of moral perceptiveness by which existence becomes beautiful and significant." The program is divided into three parts: the Storytelling and Discussion Program, the Language Pattern Program, and the Read-Aloud Program. The Story-telling and Discussion Program utilizes six posters of familiar scenes which may be mounted on a large magnetic board. The scenes depict a city street, an apartment cut-away interior, a playground, a shopping center, a farm, and a fantasyland. Magnetized die-cut characters and vehicles are placed on the backgrounds to stimulate story telling and discussion. The posters can also be used for such language activities as naming and categorizing objects and enjoying nursery rhymes. As children develop security in language and ability to create story patterns, the teacher records dictated stories and thus keeps a record of each child's language development.

The Language Pattern Program is based on the belief that a child's name offers a useful practical transition from oral to printed language and from home-rooted to public language patterns. Materials include 30 printed magnetized language patterns, six cards of punctuation marks, and blank cards on which the children's names and extra words are written with a wipe-off crayon. The child manipulates his own and others' names with the 30 printed card patterns (I am ---, Who are you? No, my names is not ---,--- is my friend, etc.).

In the third part of the program, the teacher fosters language development by reading aloud, with the children chiming in. Two collections of books are used: Kin/Der Owls, designed for nursery school and Kindergarten, and Little Owls, designed for first and second grade.

Milliken Publishing Company

Following Directions and Sequence.

This Transparency-Duplicating Book contains 12 transparencies and 28 duplicating pages. It is appropriate for use with kindergarten children and also older children who have problems with directions and sequence. The book contains many suggestions for using the materials and for pre-book and follow-up activities. Some teachers working with children who have difficulties with direction and sequence have found some of the transparencies a bit cluttered; but masking off parts of the transparency has simplified the presentation. A creative teacher would be able to design other activities based on the transparencies, to increase their usefulness.

Nelson C. White

On My Way to School I Saw. Ideal Transparency

This material consists of a base transparency, several overlays of things that could be seen or imagined on the way to school, and figures that can be manipulated to follow the pathway. Children in the Project FOCUS program have responded to this transparency with interest and have been willing to use it again and again. It is useful for developing concepts and language skills.

LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE MATERIALS

Encyclopedia Brittanica Press

Language Experiences in Reading

The language experience approach to reading instruction treats the development of reading skills as one facet of a program of development of all language arts skills including listening, speaking, spelling, and writing. Acknowledging the great variations in language skills which children bring from home, the authors, R. V. Allen and Claryce Allen, have designed a program in which not only children with adequate language background and experience but also children with limited experience in oral expression, meager vocabularies, habits of incorrect usage, and perhaps non-English-speaking backgrounds can perform successfully.

Each child's background of language experience becomes the foundation for skill development. The child begins by working not with someone else's language but with his own. Children are encouraged to make personal divergent responses to classroom stimuli and situations.

The program helps the child understand that what he thinks about he can say; what he says can be written (or dictated); what has been written can be read. His first reading experiences are with speech translated into written words, rather than with printed words that must be turned back into speech.

The integration of reading skills with other language arts skills is evident in the basic framework, or three major areas of planning. For developing all facets of language simultaneously and equally, the skills are divided into three groups entitled: Extending Experiences with Words, Studying the English Language, and Relating Authors' Ideas to Personal Experiences.

The instructional program has two phases: activities with the Pupil Book and the Continuing Program. There are three levels of activities for the primary grades. At each level, the pupil books are divided into five or six units on topics suitable for primary children, each lasting about six weeks, so that each level is a year's program. Each unit consists of from seven to ten lessons, corresponding to pages in the pupil books. These pages present poems and stories, suggest topics for writing, and provide space for the child's written expression.

At each of the three levels there is a Teacher's Resource Book which reproduces the pages of the pupil books, indicates approximate length of time for each lesson, lists the concepts to be developed, and presents detailed suggestions for activities. The Teacher's Resource Book also lists a bibliography of books and basal reader selections appropriate for use with each unit.

The Continuing Program creates the climate in which children's awareness of and skill in language grows. It makes use of a wide variety of books, films, records, and games. The teacher reads aloud. Children tell stories. Painting becomes a springboard for language development, as children paint pictures, talk about them while the teacher records, and then read back their recorded words. Keeping lists of frequently used words, discussing interesting topics, practicing writing, and making individual and class books are all part of the Continuing Program. The Teacher's Resource Books present very specific, detailed suggestions for making these activities enjoyable and meaningful experiences. Whether or not a class uses the pupil books, a teacher would find the Teacher's Resource Book a valuable guide to implementing the language-experience approach to reading instruction.

BASIC AND SUPPLEMENTARY READER SERIES

Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Centennial Edition of the Sheldon Basic Reading Series – preprimer through grade 6

Offers each pupil balanced and systematic instruction in the basic reading skills in a learning environment that gives him confidence and holds his interest. Teaches a variety of word attack skills. Comprehension and interpretation are taught throughout as major aims. Critical reading and study skills are an integral part of the teaching program. Enrichment materials available include activity books, word cards, and picture cards.

American Book Company

The Read System – non-graded

Language the child speaks is the language he meets in his first readers. New words are grouped according to common linguistic, phonic, and structural elements, enabling the child to discover generalizations he can apply in decoding a large number of words. Vocabulary skills and comprehension skills are developed and reinforced on the Skill Pages. Articles about reading and language also appear in pupil's books. Other components include a testing program, related learning materials such as alphabet, picture and word cards, as well as phonics kits and comprehension kits.

Ginn and Company

Reading 360 – preprimer through grade 6

A series designed around nine vertical skills strands of decoding, vocabulary, comprehension, creativity development, literary understanding and appreciation, language, study skills, sensitivity to social-moral values, and acquisition of knowledge and information. The format is anthology-like; and this organization has made possible the inclusion of stories, articles, plays, and poems having relevance and meaning for a broad spectrum of children.

The instructional program of Reading 360, also geared to meeting the differing needs of many children, offers a rich assortment of materials and activities that can be used to reinforce and to supplement the basic learnings presented in each level.

Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

Bookmark Reading Program

Bookmark has three major components – Primary Readers and, for the intermediate grades, Skills Readers and Literature Readers. The Primary Readers, which contain stories and plays, develop basic reading skills.

Early experiences in the primary grades are extended and intensified in the intermediate grades, where there is a separate skill development program both for informational material and for literature.

The Skills Readers contain all nonfiction informational articles from magazines and books and excerpts from textbooks in mathematics, social studies, and science, introduced by skills lessons.

The three Literature Readers contain only fiction stories and poetry by well known writers and no editorial material. Teachers' editions develop the teaching.

Palo Alto Reading Program

Sequential Steps in Reading

This is a basal reading program for the beginning elementary school years. It is a carefully structured program that places strong emphasis on the relation of sound and symbol in our language. It is essentially an ungraded program that provides maximum opportunity for the individual child to meet his own needs. *Sequential Steps in Reading* leads the child in a step-by-step progression to the point at which he becomes an independent reader – ready to read widely in children's literature and to read effectively in the content subjects. Components included in the program are card boxes containing letter, word, and picture cards; sentence cards; pocket charts; flannel backed pattern cards; children's individual spelling pockets; and children's individual letter cards.

Harper and Row

The Harper and Row Basic Reading Program

Covers the whole spectrum of reading development from readiness through Grade 8. The texts with their supporting materials comprise a complete and well balanced program which helps students grow in reading skills and in literary appreciation.

The program is structured in three strands:

Strand 1 – developmental reading program

Strand 2 – reading in the subject matter areas

Strand 3 – readiness, individualized reading; library skills development; curriculum enrichment

In strands 1 and 2, the basic teaching materials include texts, workbooks, phonics workbooks, tests, teachers' editions, word cards, duplicating masters, picture forms, and record sheets. Strand 3 consists of four classroom library collections for Grades 1 through 6 and specially prepared readiness material for kindergarten and early primary.

Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

Sounds of Language Readers. – preprimer through grade 6

The *Sounds of Language Readers* use the "melody of language" to help children find the sound of meaning in printed symbols. Emphasis is on reading sentences rather than on learning individual words. Many kinds of sentence patterns are presented in poems, stories, essays on language, articles, jingles, and lyrics to popular songs.

Vocabulary is not controlled and is not pretaught. Children are to take in "sweeps of language through the ear, which they later analyze in printed form, thereby making unknown words familiar."[1] Children are also to use sentence and story structure and meaning to unlock unknown words. Much reading aloud by the teacher is recommended to "attune children's ears to sentence sounds in which linguistic structure can be analyzed. Structural analysis, in turn, releases the vocabulary."[2] The books contain many odd, complicated, humorous words. Children are encouraged to develop curiosity about words and to collect their favorite words on cards.

---

[1] *Sounds of Mystery*, Teacher's Edition, p. T.E. 16

Instead of the traditional view that the child should set his purpose for reading before the reading begins, it is suggested that he may not know his purposes until the post-reading discussion helps him clarify them. As the discussions help the child develop awareness of himself and the world, they are considered a powerful stimulus to writing. To help children develop structure and variety in their writing, there are also suggestions for linguistically-oriented activities – rearranging, transforming, expanding, and reducing sentences.

Another stated purpose of this series is to develop children's sensitivity to the three levels of language: "home-rooted language," represented in the readers by vernacular tales; "public language" found in the factual articles; and the "life-lifting language" of poetry and literature. All three levels are acceptable; home-rooted language must be respected, whether grammatically correct or not. As a final purpose, the series stresses the developing of "sensitivity to humanness" – a feeling of individual worth and of kinship with humanity.

The *Sounds of Language Readers* have made use of a familiar eye-catching technique used in advertising – typographical variation. Unusual patterns of letters and variation in size, direction, spacing, color, and typeface all suggest variations in spoken language patterns. The teacher's editions are thoroughly annotated.

Houghton Mifflin Company

Reading for Meaning – prereading through grade 6

Begins at prereading level to build specific skills essential to independent reading. *Getting Ready to Read* introduces the phonic clues most essential in unlocking strange words and teaches pupils how to use these in conjunction with context clues. In the intermediate grades, emphasis moves from word attack skills to specific skills needed for effective study and critical reading. Library appreciation and reading tastes are expanded through a broad range of material chosen for its high quality and interest appeal. Numerous supplementary items accompany the program.

Laidlaw Brothers.

The Co-Basal Reading Series

Stories of Today and Tales of Long Ago are multi-purpose, co-basal readers designed and written to complement any basic readers. Each book embraces two separate and distinctly different types of stories: (1) *Stories of Today,* and (2) *Tales of Long Ago.* In the contemporary *Stories of Today,* pupils readily identify with the vocabulary as to familiarity and comprehension. The second part of the book, *Tales of Long Ago,* contains stories of high literary quality with real plot, suspense, and character development. In these traditional folk tales, the pupils recognize the same familiar vocabulary now used in more formal language patterns. By guiding pupils from stories of everyday life to the treasures of literature, the book opens a new world in which children learn the delights of reading for pleasure.

---

[2] *Ibid.*, p. T.E. 25.

J. B. Lippincott Company

Basic Reading Series

A phonic/linguistic basal reading program with sequential introduction of phoneme grapheme relationships. In the intermediate and upper levels of the program, there is increased emphasis on high-quality reading selections by world famous authors; and the texts teach a new, simplified linguistic grammar.

Macmillan Company

Macmillan Reading Program — preprimer through grade 6

Reading independence is developed from the beginning of the first preprimer. "Look-say" is avoided. Phoneme-grapheme associations are systematically built with natural sentence patterns providing syntactic clues to meaning. Pupils are led to discover new words for themselves by means of self-help references in practice exercises and discovery books. Vocabulary controls enabled the authors to introduce contractions and direct dialogue in the first preprimer. The story children talk and act like real children.

The new stories contain experiences common to all children, sensitively reflecting the diversity of this country's socio-cultural mixture. There is a variety of fiction and nonfiction selections, poems, essays, folk tales and legends, as well as science and social studies articles.

Bank Street Readers — primary grades

The Readers depict many kinds of American communities. They are of special interest to the urban child who cannot relate to the middle-class world of the traditional basal readers. The Bank Street skills program is designed to aid teachers whose classroom children represent a wide variety of educational and cultural backgrounds and problems. Disadvantaged children can readily identify with and respond to the familiar environments and vocabulary used in the Readers.

Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company

Gaining Independence in Reading Series — intermediate grades

This three-book series is a developmental program of instruction in reading and study skills. It may be used as either a self-contained basal reading program that develops comprehension, interpretive, and vocabulary-building skills or as an effective system of skill development for any basal series program.

Thematic units deal with a wide variety of interesting topics that excite the student's imagination and encourage him to read. Vocabulary and sentence length are carefully controlled for maximum comprehension.

Random House/Singer

Random House Reading Program

A kit consisting of fifty titles which span a range of at least five years in reading difficulty levels. Each program includes a balanced selection of biography, science, stories about real boys and girls, and fun and fantasy as well as action and adventure. A set of challenging, highly-motivating question cards were written by educators and reading specialists for every reading program selection. The cards are fastened to the inside front cover of each book to make sure no opportunity is missed to strengthen vital reading skills. Each card contains objective questions around a cluster of reading skills.

Survey: how to choose a book, how to use the parts of a book to tell what the book will be about

Vocabulary: word recognition, context, word relationships, phonic skills

Detail: sequence, recall, locating answers, finding the main idea, predicting outcomes, etc.

Comprehension: evaluating, comparing, making inferences

Activity: group skills and highly motivating suggestions for pupil involvement

The child checks his own answers and keeps his own diagnostic records. He then has a book conference with his teacher to evaluate his progress. He may be assigned remedial work in particular reading skills. The Teacher's Guide includes information about every book in the program. A "Reading Skilpacer Diagnostic Skill Building Lab" is included in every Random House Reading Program. For each of the fifteen reading skills in the program, the teacher can prescribe an instruction card which identifies the skill, gives examples and sends the pupil to *any* book to practice the skill; and he might also assign a practice card or two (at average or below-average reading difficulty levels) which contain self-checking exercises to help the pupil practice the skill.

Scott, Foresman and Company

Scott, Foresman Reading Systems — 12 levels (primary grades)

Consists of an array of interlocking, reinforcing, multisensory components to give every teacher many materials with which to work in the teaching of reading. Two kinds of components make up the sets of related parts.

1. Core Components
2. Additional Components

The core components are the parts needed for the initial teaching of the skills of reading. The additional components are those a teacher can use alone or in combination with core components to create subsystems for small groups of individuals in order to reteach particular skills or concepts, to provide practice to give a child a needed few days of quiet exploration. Included in the core components of the system are:

1. Professional Library

    a) *Coordinating Reading Instruction*
    b) *Home and School: Focus on Reading*
    c) *Helping Children Reach Their Potential*
    d) *Children's Reading in the Home*

2. Manual – One for each level – shows each teacher how to Manage the Systems

3. *Teacher's Annotated Edition* – All the pupils' books for a level bound together with highlights of the teaching procedures overprinted on each page

4. *Teacher's Read-Aloud Library and Anthology*

5. Magneboard – portable, magnetized, display board for use with:

6. Magnepiece File – magnetized sentences, pictures, words, letters and punctuation marks needed for the exercises described in the Manual

7. Pupil's Books – four to nine books for each level, long enough to develop a story or theme, but short enough to hold the reader's interest.

8. Take-Home Books – inexpensive duplicates of selected Pupils' Books at each level for children to share with parents

9. Studybook – pictures, text questions and exercises for teacher-guided skill development for each level

10. Independent Practice Pad

11. Informal Reading Inventory

12. Level Test

The Bright Horizons Program – grades 1-6

Collections of full-length literature selections with related poems that present a challenge to youngsters whose potential goes beyond the regular classroom fare. Designed to help these children develop the ability to do critical reading and thinking.

In each collection, five or six whole books or major parts of books (each a year or more above grade level) are presented. Features include:

a) In-depth questions with no "right" answers, to stimulate bright youngsters to critical thinking. Some questions concentrate on helping children recognize the form of a selection and develop criteria for evaluating different forms.

b) "Thinking It Over" sections following the selections to help children analyze and evaluate what they have read.

c) Book-and-author features.

d) Collectors' Item-books for additional reading imaginatively displayed after each selection.

e) "Talking It Over" sections following the selections, to give children a chance to sort out and refine their ideas through small-group discussions.

MATERIALS EMPHASIZING SOUND-SPELLING PATTERNS

Harper and Row

The Linguistic Readers

The Linguistic Readers consist of preprimers, primers, and first reader, accompanied by workbooks. Lessons are in three steps: vocabulary presentation, directed reading, and skill building. The vocabulary illustrates regular sound-spelling correspondences. Unlike the linguistic series published by Merrill and SRA, lists of words illustrating a pattern with a minimal change in the first or final consonant are not presented first on the pages of the readers. Although vocabulary presentation is part of each lesson, in the readers themselves the words merely appear in the text. Of the twenty-four words introduced in the first preprimer in the series, only two pairs (*Pud, mud* and *get, wet*) illustrate the change of initial consonant in the consonant-vowel-consonant pattern which is the main feature of the beginning lessons in other linguistic series.

At the end of the first preprimer of *The Linguistic Readers* children have been introduced not only to the CVC pattern but also to words with initial and final consonant clusters such as *frog, jump,* and *pond;* and all of the vowel letters have been introduced. In contrast,in the SRA series, the first two books limit vocabulary to the CVC pattern; words with consonant clusters like *band* and *skin* are not introduced until the third book; and the introduction of the five vowel letters is spread over the first two books. In the SRA series, words of two syllables are not introduced until the fifth book, whereas in *The Linguistic Readers,* the word *little* appears in the very first book, and other two-syllable words are presented in the second book. Phonemic word length is not a criterion as it is in the SRA series. A further difference is that although sight words are taught, on the reader pages they merely appear in the text rather than being presented in circles or boxes as in the Merrill and SRA series.

These differences make it evident that even though the linguistic materials which have been published resemble each other in being based on the principle that regularity of sound-spelling correspondences is the primary consideration, there is no unanimity of opinion as to the best sequence of vocabulary presentation.

Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co.

Merrill Linguistic Readers. – primary grades

Six readers plus an alphabet book and six skills books implement the principals for teaching beginning reading which the late Charles C. Fries set forth in his book *Linguistics and Reading. My Alphabet Book* presents both capital and lower case letters; and the teaching manual for the series specifies that the ability to identify all the letters in any sequence is a prerequisite to beginning work in the first reader.

The basic procedure begins with the teacher presenting on the chalkboard the set of words in minimum contrast, the first set being *cat, fat, Nat.* The teacher pronounces each word, spells it, uses it in a sentence, and has the children volunteer sentences. The children say the word and spell it as the teacher points to the letters. Each word is contrasted with the others in the pattern. Sight words are presented in circles and pronounced but not spelled. Then the same words are introduced in the first reader in sentences such as "Nat is a fat cat," and silent reading is guided by the teacher's questions. After the silent reading, the teacher and children discuss what has been learned about Nat. Oral reading follows, individually and in unison, with natural intonation emphasized as a means of evaluating comprehension.

After twenty pages, only ten words of this pattern have been presented. Then a second pattern (*can, man, ran*) is introduced, and the new words are contrasted with those of the first pattern and with each other. By the end of *Reader One*, six more types of the CVC spelling pattern have been introduced, plus the possessive *-'s*.

Readers Two to Five continue presentation of the major spelling patterns, as classified by Fries, and of plurals, possessives, tense inflections, and compound words. By the end of *Reader Six*, the selections have expanded greatly in vocabulary, sentence structure, length, and subject matter – which includes both fiction and nonfiction. Throughout the program, children are encouraged to write sentences and stories utilizing words presented in the reading.

Science Research Associates, Inc.

SRA Basic Reading Series. – primary grades

This linguistically-oriented series is based on the authors' experimentation with a "phonemic word approach" to teaching beginning reading in first and second grades. It consists of six readers and includes an Alphabet Book. The Level A reader introduces the CVC pattern with vowel letters *a* and *i*, beginning with the *man, Dan, ran, fun, can* series. The same pattern is continued in Level B, with *e, o*, and *u* being introduced. The use of *s* in plurals and possessives is also presented.

Level C introduces four- and five-letter words with initial and final consonant clusters and digraphs. In Level D are presented words with consonant diphthongs, trigraphs, and clusters of up to three consonants, and the suffix *-ing*. In Level E are presented two-syllable and multisyllabic words, various suffixes and prefixes, and a large number of vowel sound-spelling relationships. The final book introduces patterns involving the letter *r*, minor sound-spelling patterns, and further vowel and consonant digraphs, trigraphs, diphthongs, and triphthongs. At all levels, compounds like *ragbag* and *bathtub* illustrate patterns previously taught. Along with the pattern words, a number of sight words are taught. They are called "exceptional" words and are enclosed in boxes.

The vocabularies of the six readers are graded according to the criterion of phonemic word length. The phonemic length of words in the first two readers is two and three phonemes; in the third reader, three and four phonemes; in the fourth reader, four and five phonemes; and in the last two books, five and more.

In the Level D reader, an attempt is made – through the introduction of contractions such as *I've, you're, weren't* and *shouldn't* – to have stories and poems reflect natural oral language patterns of children. Stories in the last two readers were written by professional authors and are considerably more developed than those in the earlier books.

Cracking the Code. The Key to Independent Reading.

This is a remedial program for children in grades 4-6 who cannot read independently nor figure out new words. The technique is "linguistic word attack," designed to improve "decoding skills." The material consists of a reader and workbook divided into 12 levels. The stories, poems, and exercises are programmed according to the sound-spelling patterns of written English, progressing from the commonest sound-spelling patterns to more complex and less frequent patterns. An introductory lesson is suggested to introduce the child to the concept of sound-spelling patterns. The child discovers the patterns presented within a level through workbook exercises, then reads related selections in the reader. By discovering generalizations about English sound-spelling relationships, the child should eventually be able to figure out any new word by automatically matching its spelling pattern to those of familiar words. The program is designed to be completed in three months or less.

PROGRAMMED MATERIALS

Sullivan Associates

Programmed Reading

This program is described by the publishers as a basal reading program for primary grades and a corrective program for middle and upper grades. It employs a linguistic approach and a programmed format. Publishers claim that content is based on careful research into children's reading preferences. The program is divided into four parts: Prereading, and Series I, II, and III.

Prereading program is in two stages. Stage I, Reading Readiness, consists of letter-sound work presented by the teacher. Children learn the names of the letters *a, i, n, p, t,* and *m,* and the most common sound for each letter. They learn to read and spell 16 words: *an, in, pan, pin, nip, nap, it, at, pat, tin, tan, ant, am, man, mat, map.* Materials used are alphabet strips, sound-symbol cards, and alphabet cards.

In Stage II, the Prereader, children are introduced to their first book. They practice writing letters and words learned in Stage 1; learn more letter names, sounds, and words; read and write sentences ("I am a man. Am I an ant?"); and choose correct answers to questions, words to complete statements, and letters to complete words. Teacher's key gives detailed instructions for questions to be asked and appropriate pupil responses. Recommended use is in 30-minute periods twice a day for about two weeks.

Series I, Series II, and Series III consist of seven paperback books each. They correspond roughtly to first, second, and third grade levels of reading. On the right side of each page in Series I are pictures accompanied by simple questions, and statement completion and word completion items. On the left side is the answer column which the child covers. He makes a written response, checks his answer, and corrects his errors. (Separate response booklets make it possible to reuse the readers.) There are tests for each book and each series.

Stories, descriptive passages, and poems increase in length and complexity in Series II and III. In Books 18 and 19, the pupil reads and helps write a "programmed novel." Books 20 and 21 are devoted to Greek mythology and hero stories. By the end of the series, the child has been introduced to 67 "vowel classes" and 44 "consonant classes" and a vocabulary of 3,107 words.

The program also provides for related activities: reading aloud, writing to dictation, spelling, chalkboard work, creative writing, and making bulletin boards.

MATERIALS WITH MODIFIED WRITTEN CODE

American Guidance Service, Inc.

The Peabody Rebus Reading Program

A rebus is a symbol or picture which represents a word or part of a word rather than a sound. The REBUS reading program introduces children to reading with a vocabulary of rebuses rather than spelled words, the rationale being that rebuses are easier for a child to learn and remember than spelled words. The pupil's first experiences direct his attention to the reading process rather than to the complex alphabetic code.

Materials consist of three programmed readiness level workbooks (*Introducing Reading*, Books 1, 2, and 3) and two Rebus Readers (*Red and Blue Are on Me* and *Can You See a Little Flea?*) on the "transition" or preprimer level. Readiness Book 1 introduces a rebus vocabulary of 35 words and emphasizes context clues. Book 2 extends the vocabulary and introduces inflectional endings *-s*, *'s*, and *-ing*. Book 3 introduces phonics skills. The pages are divided into four panels or frames, each presenting a "reading situation" requiring a response. The child responds by wiping a dampened pencil eraser across a ribbed area which turns green or red.

In the two Rebus Readers, spelled words are substituted for rebuses. A half-size rebus is placed above the spelled word, which appears on a yellow background. Then the rebus is omitted, but the yellow background is continued to indicate to the child that he can refer back to the word key if he forgets the newly "transitioned" word.

At the end of the program, the child has been introduced to a reading vocabulary of 122 spelled words. The vocabulary is based upon analysis of the preprimers and primers of seven basic reader programs. He has become familiar with left-to-right, top-to-bottom progression, with a variety of sentence structures, with punctuation marks, and with stories and conversational text.

The readiness level of the Rebus program is intended as an end-of-year experience for kindergarten and for Head Start and other preschool programs. The transition materials may be used in place of or as a supplement to traditional beginning reading programs. Upon completion of this level, the child is expected to be ready for the primer level of traditional programs.

The authors of the program consider it particularly appropriate for teaching reading to non-English-speaking children. New rebuses are first presented in the pupil's native language; then the equivalent English word is taught. The program is also suggested for remedial reading and for children with learning disabilities or mental retardation.

Supplementary materials include Rebus word cards and a kit for adapting instruction to special needs. The teacher's manual gives specific "Teaching Cues" for every step of the program.

Initial Teaching Alphabet Publications, Incorporated

I/T/A Initial Teaching Alphabet

The Initial Teaching Alphabet consists of 44 sound-symbols which may be described as an extension of the traditional orthography or alphabet now in use. Special reading materials are needed to teach the I/T/A.

Children's classroom activities include writing stories, poems, and reports in I/T/A. Proponents of I/T/A report: (1) transferring from the I/T/A to traditional orthography at third grade level has been relatively easy in most instances; (2) spelling seems to be improved; (3) retarded children, potential dropouts, and remedial readers have benefited from I/T/A; and (4) attitudes toward reading have improved. Materials including books, transition cards, films, filmstrips, and records are available for use with I/T/A, along with a Teacher Training Workbook and Guide which includes the history, writing and spelling, rules and exercises, pacing of children, word lists, creative writing, post transition program, and other applications of I/T/A.

HIGH INTEREST – EASY VOCABULARY MATERIALS

Field Educational Publications, Inc.

The Checkered Flag Series

Observing that boys constitute a great majority of reading problem cases, the authors cite as one contributing factor the lack of reading materials in which boys are interested. This series is designed to alleviate this problem by being built around the subject of cars. Its stated objectives are four-fold: to provide materials having a high interest appeal for boys; to enable poor readers to achieve success; to foster understanding of a major sport; and to develop comprehension. vocabulary, and critical thinking skills.

Each title in the series deals with a different type of car in a different racing situation. The eight books and their themes are *Wheels* (hot rods), *Riddler* (road rallies), *Bearcat* (old cars), *Smashup* (sports car racing), Scramble (motor cycles), *Flea* (dune buggies), and *Grand Prix* and *500* (two famous races). The characters are all boys and men who act and speak realistically. Plots, characters, and illustrations are designed to appeal to older readers. It is suggested that they be used with junior and senior high school boys who are interested in cars but lack reading ability for adult periodicals, and also with younger readers who do not have a reading problem and who do have interest in the subject. The authors feel that many girls will also enjoy these stories.

The vocabulary is controlled and is supplemented with a number of words related to technical aspects of cars and racing. Grade placement, determined by the Spache Readability Formula, progresses from 2.4 for the first book *Wheels* to 4.5 for the last book, *500.*

In these books, the authors have tried to present a clear and accurate picture of the various aspects of racing. The reader learns that more is required than a desire to drive fast – that car racing requires good judgment, knowledge of cars, skill, good sportsmanship, and excellent physical condition.

At the end of each book is a section of exercises on each chapter. They are of six kinds: multiple-choice questions on main ideas and action of the story, detecting inaccuracies in detail, identifying actions or quotations of individual characters, word meanings, discussion questions, and word origins.

Two audiovisual kits that accompany the series contain filmstrips, records, and tapes designed to motivate the reader, provide authentic background, promote good listening habits, and develop a positive attitude toward safe driving. There are suggestions for further language development activities such as collecting pictures and writing reports on racing cars, discussing news items on racing, reading biographies of famous drivers, and preparing a dictionary of automobile and racing terms. For the teacher there is provided in the manual a synopsis and the necessary background information for each story.

APPENDIX C

GLOSSARY

Supplement to:
Teaching Reading Skills
Bulletin No. 246
Fall 1972

The following terms appear in Chapter II and Appendix A. It is recognized that the use of such terms varies from one authority or source to another. The definitions given below reflect the way these terms have been used in this Bulletin. In most cases, departures from more common usage have been for the purpose of drawing a clear distinction between oral language and its written counterpart.

affix – a bound morpheme (i.e. the smallest unit of meaning [morpheme] that cannot stand alone [bound]) which is attached to the beginning or to the end of the base.
A prefix is an affix attached to the beginning of the base. A suffix is an affix attached to the end of the base. Examples: *un*able – derivational prefix; glad*ness* – derivational suffix; dog*s* – inflectional suffix.

affricate (af'-ri-kət) – a consonant which is defined by the way the consonant sound is produced: a momentary stoppage of the breath and then a gradual release, producing a slight friction sound. Example: the beginning and ending sounds of *church* and *judge*. See page A-12 of Appendix A.

articulation – change in the shape and size of air-passages and resonance cavities of the human vocal tract to produce the different sounds of speech.

articulator – one of various movable organs that modulate speech sounds by their motion in relation to fixed points of articulation. The principal articulators are the lower lip, the tongue, the soft palate (velum), and the small appendage at the end of the velum (uvula). The principal points of articulation are the upper lip, the upper teeth, the gum behind the upper teeth (alveolar ridge), the bony roof of the mouth (palate), and the soft palate.

auxiliary – see *verb marker.*

base – a morpheme which carries the principal meaning of a word and to which affixes may be added. Examples: *type* – re*type*, *typ*ist. Two bases may be combined with other bases to form compound words. Example: *type*writer.

basic sentence – a simple, active, declarative sentence consisting of a noun (noun phrase) or subject, followed by a verb (verb phrase) or predicate. See pages A116-A117. Examples:

The apple ripens.	(noun + verb)
The child eats the apple.	(noun + verb + direct object)
The child gives the teacher the apple.	(noun + verb + indirect object + direct object)
The apple tastes sweet.	(noun + linking verb + adjective)
The apple is a fruit.	(noun + linking verb + noun)
The apple is here.	(noun + verb + adverb)
The child came into the room.	(noun + verb + phrase)

bound base – a morpheme which serves as a stem for derivational word forms but never appears as a free form. Example: *-ceive* serves as a stem for the words *receive, perceive, deceive,* and *conceive* but does not stand alone as a word. The word *predictions* consists of four bound forms: a prefix (*pre-*), and bound base (*-dic-*), a derivational suffix (*-tion*), and an inflectional suffix (*-s*).

clause marker – a structure word which introduces a clause, or word group with a noun-verb pattern, within the larger pattern of a sentence. Examples: *if, when, until, as, which, whose, before, after, though.* Also called *subordinate conjunction* and *relative pronoun.*

closed syllable – (1) an oral syllable which ends in a consonant sound; (2) a written syllable that ends in a consonant letter. Example: *rad-* in *radish.* See page A-96.

combining form – a form that occurs in compound or derivative words. It can be distinguished from an affix by (1) its ability to occur as a base to which an affix may be added, or (2) by its existence as a word or combining form in the language from which it is borrowed. Example: *duo-* and *bene-* are combining forms rather than prefixes. They are words in Latin, and *duo-* is the base in *dual.*

complex vowel nucleus – see *diphthong.*

compound word – a word consisting of components that are words. Compounds are distinguished in speech from similar grammatical constructions by intonational contrast (*bluebird* as contrasted with *blue bird*). This difference is not so clearly indicated in print. *Webster's Third New International Dictionary, Unabridged* gives as examples of compound words *rowboat, high school,* and *devil-may-care.*[1] "A large proportion of the compounds that are written solid may with equal acceptability be open or hyphened (*matchbox/match box/match-box*)."[2] In beginning reading instruction only words with the components written together or with hyphens are treated as compounds. See page A-72.

configuration – the general shape of a written word produced by the varying height of letters. See page 15.

consonant – one of the class of speech sounds characterized by construction or closure at one or more points in the breath channel. Examples: /b/, /k/. See page A-11.

consonant cluster – (1) adjacent consonants in a spoken word, articulated as separate sounds but somewhat blended together in normal speech; (2) two or more adjacent consonant letters in a written word, each of which represents an articulated sound in the spoken word. Also called *consonant blend.* Examples *cl, pr, st.*

consonant digraph – a pair of consonant letters used to represent a single consonant (sound). Examples: *ch, sh, ng.*

consonant letter – one of the 21 letters of the alphabet which represent consonants and semivowels. Examples: *b, c, h.*

context – the parts of a spoken or written expression that surround a word or passage and can throw light upon the meaning.

contraction – (1) an oral word form produced by omitting from a word group a sound or sounds; (2) a shortened written word form produced by combining two words and omitting a letter or letters, the omission being indicated by an apostrophe. Examples: *isn't, we're.*

decode – to go from written or oral language (code) to *meaning*; to recreate in the mind of the listener or reader the *meaning* expressed by the speaker or writer. See pages 5-8.

derivational suffix – a suffix which has a limited and arbitrary distribution, which may change the part of speech, and which may be followed by other suffixes. Example: *-ance* may be added only to certain verbs like *perform, attend, observe,* and *rid* to create nouns, and may be followed by the plural suffix *-s.*

dialect – the form or variety of a spoken language peculiar to a region, community, social class, or occupational group.

---

[1] *Webster's Third New International Dictionary, Unabridged* (Springfield, Mass.: G. & C. Merriam Company, Publishers, 1968), p. 466.

[2] *Ibid.* p. 30a.

diphthong – two vowel sounds combined. The first is longer and more strongly stressed and glides into the second sound. Examples: *boy, oil.* In most linguistic analyses of American speech, the vowel sounds called *long vowels* in reading instruction are treated as diphthongs. Examples: the vowel sounds in *bait, bite.* See pages A-10 and A-11.

encode – to go from *meaning* to *code*: either written or oral. (1) Written: to *produce* written language; to transform meaning in the mind of a writer into a graphic sequence, following the written language code. (2) Oral: to *produce* oral language; to transform meaning in the mind of a speaker into a sound sequence following the rules of the language code. See pages 5-6.

end marks – the period, question mark, and exclamation point, which mark the end of sentences in print. See page A-131.

expansion – the addition of optional elements (usually word, phrase, or clause modifiers) to a basic sentence. Example: *The girl carried a basket* may be expanded to *The little girl in the red cloak and hood carried a basket of goodies to her grandmother.*

fade-fall terminal – pause (juncture) at the end of a clause or sentence; consists of gradual fading of the voice following falling pitch, which signals the termination of statements, commands or requests, and questions that begin with a question marker. Examples: *It is mine. Whose paper is this?* See page A-134.

fade-rise terminal – pause (juncture) consisting of relatively gradual trailing off of the voice following a rise in pitch. Signals the termination of a question that requires a *yes*-or-*no* answer, or within an utterance signals that the utterance is not complete but continues. Example: *Is it time to go?* See page A-134.

free base – a morpheme which may appear alone as a word, as distinguished from bound bases and affixes. Example: *print* is the base in *imprint* and is also a word. See *bound base.*

fricative – a consonant which is defined by the way the consonant sound is produced; a stream of breath passing through the constricted opening between an articulator and a point of articulation. Fricatives may be voiced or unvoiced. Example: the beginning sounds of *vendor* and *fender.* See page A-12.

function word – same as *structure word.*

glided vowel – a term used in some basal reader series to indicate a diphthong, or long vowel.

grapheme – a letter or symbol of written language. The graphemes of printed English are the twenty-one consonant letters, the five vowel letters, eleven punctuation marks, and such nonphonemic features as lower case and capital letters, italics, and small caps. Space between words is also considered a graphemic feature of printed English.

homograph (häm′ə-graf, hō′mə-graf) – one of two or more words spelled alike but differing in meaning, pronunciation, or derivation. Example *fair* (market) and *fair* (beautiful).

homophone (häm′ə-fōn, hō′mə-fōn) – one of two or more words pronounced alike but differing in spelling and meaning. Example: *fair* and *fare.*

inflected form – a word form consisting of a steam and an inflectional suffix. Examples: *boy* + *-s*, *talk* + *-ed.*

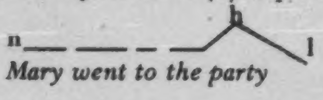
inflectional suffix – a suffix which adapts a word to a grammatical function without changing its dictionary meaning or part of speech. In English there are noun plural and possessive inflections, verb number and tense inflections, and adjective and adverb comparison inflections.

intensifier or qualifier – a structure word which occurs before adjectives and adverbs and sharpens the meaning, either increasing or reducing the intensity of meaning. Examples: *very, less, quite, rather, any, too.*

internal marks – the comma, semicolon, colon, and dash, which appear within written sentences, usually at points where pauses come in speech; thus they correspond roughly to speech features of juncture, pitch, and stress. See page A-131.

intonation – significant variation in pitch, stress, and juncture; contributes to the meaning of oral language; the *melodies* of language. See page A-113.

intonation pattern – (1) a pitch sequence; (2) the graphic representation of such a sequence. Example:



n = normal; h = high; l = low.

inversion – reversal of the normal word order of a sentence (subject followed by verb) to verb or verb marker followed by subject. Example: "Into the valley of Death
Rode the six hundred."

juncture – pause or slight delay in the continuous flow of speech combined with pitch and stress patterns. Juncture marks the division between words, phrases, or marks the end of utterances. See pages A-133 to A-135.

kinesic (kə-nē′sik) – referring to nonvocal communicative actions which may accompany speech, such as gestures, facial expressions, shrugs, winks.

kinesthetic (kin-əs-thet′ik) – referring to sensory experience derived from a sense mediated by end organs located in muscles, tendons, and joints and stimulated by bodily movements and tensions.

lateral – a consonant which is defined by the way the consonant sound is produced: closing off most of the air passage of the mouth by placing part of the tongue against the roof of the mouth while leaving an opening at the sides. Example: In American English there are four such sounds, all very similar and all represented by the phoneme /l/ as in *l*amp, f*l*ap, fu*ll*, mi*l*k. See *phoneme.*

level terminal – see *sustained terminal.*

lexical – referring to semantic or dictionary meaning of a word; distinguished from the grammatical meaning which is indicated by position in a sentence or by an inflectional suffix.

linguistics – the scientific study of human speech or language, and relevant relationships between speech and writing.

linking verb – a verb which is a structural link between subject and complement. The most common and typical example is *be.* Linking verbs may be identified by substituting them for a form of *be* in a sentence like: The dog *is* friendly. Examples: *become, seem, remain, look, sound.* See page A-117.

logogram (lôg′ə-gram, läg′ə-gram) – a grapheme representing an entire word. Examples: numerals; such symbols as &, +, –, =, @, $, ¢, and %; the system of notation used to record chess games; and abbreviations (which are read as whole words rather than by matching a sequence of graphemes to a sequence of phonemes).

long vowel – in phonics the vowel sounds heard in *ape, eat, mine, doe,* and *use,* which coincide with the names of the letters *a, e, i, o, u.* In the phonemic analysis followed by many American linguists these speech sounds are treated as diphthongs, or complex vowel nuclei. See *diphthong.*

marker – a structure word which marks structural sentence elements such as a noun, a verb, a phrase, or a clause. Examples: *the, is, to, when.* See *clause marker, noun-determiner, phrase marker, question marker, verb marker.*

morpheme – the smallest unit of *meaning.* An indivisible meaning-bearing language element patterned out of phonemes. Examples: *girl, -s, un-, tie, -ed.* Thus *girls* consists of two morphemes (*girl* + *-s*) the *-s* has the meaning of plurality; *untied* consists of three morphemes (*un-* + *tie* + *-ed*) each of the morphemes having a different meaning. Morphemes may be free (whole words such as *girl*) or bound (prefixes, suffixes, and bases which cannot stand alone, such as *-ceive*), (*-ceive* is a Latin root and means *take*). See *affix, base, bound base, free base.*

morphology – the study of word formation in a language including inflection, derivation, and compounding.

morphological marks – punctuation marks which indicate meaning within words: the apostrophe, which marks noun possessive inflections and the omission of letters in a contraction, and the hyphen, which indicates certain compound words. See page A-131.

nasal – a consonant which is defined by the way the consonant sound is produced: completely stopping the oral cavity at one of the points of articulation, with the soft palate slightly lowered and free passage of air and sound through the nasal cavity and nostrils. The final sounds of *ram, ran,* and *rang* are nasals. See page A-12.

noun-determiner – a structure word which precedes and signals a noun in a noun group. The most important noun-determiners which have no other function and therefore invariably signal the presence of a noun, are the articles *the, a/an,* and the possessive adjectives *my, your, our,* and *their.* Other structure words which act as noun-determiners and which can also function in the position of nouns themselves are the possessive adjectives *his, hers*; the demonstrative adjectives *this/these, that/those*; cardinal and ordinal adjectives, such as *one, two, first, second*; indefinite adjectives such as *many, more, several, both, all, some, no, every, few, other, each,* and *enough*; and interrogative adjectives, such as *which, whose.* Some of these words always mark nouns in the plural; others always mark nouns in the singular, while the rest may appear with either singular or plural nouns.

noun group – a group of words which may be substituted for and function as a noun in a sentence. Example: In the sentence, *Happiness is a book,* for *happiness* substitute *My idea of fun*; for *book* substitute *reading a book, a walk in the spring rain,* or *making out report cards.*

open juncture – a cut or slight pause in the speech stream between words or syllables, which coincides with the separation of words by space in print. Example: The slight pause which would distinguish the spoken words *an arrow* from *a narrow...* See page A-134.

open syllable – (1) an oral syllable which ends in a vowel sound; (2) a written syllable which ends in a vowel letter. Example: *ra-* in *radar.* See page A-96.

orthography – the representation of the sounds of a language by written or printed symbols.

paralinguistic – pertaining either to expressive sounds such as groaning, sighing, whining, laughing, and expressions of disgust or pleasure, or to optional interpretive intonations that are superimposed upon the normal obligatory intonational patterns to express emotion or attitude. See page A-133.

phoneme – a minimal sound in spoken language. Example: the /s/ in *son* is a phoneme; *son* has three phonemes, /s/ /ə/ /n/.

Detailed definition: A phoneme consists of a group of phonetically similar speech sounds or phones. Example: in English there are four sounds articulated slightly differently, which constitute the phoneme /l/: the voiced *clear l* heard at the beginning of words and between a voiced consonant and a vowel (*lamp, black*); a similar voiceless sound heard after voiceless consonants (*flap*); the *dark l* heard after vowels or as a syllabic nucleus (*full, muscle*); and a similar sound made with the tongue tip against the lower front teeth (*milk*). Since these sounds do not appear in the same position in words (as /l/ and /r/ do in *lap* and *rap*), their difference is not significant in English. Therefore they are not separate phonemes but are members (allophones) of the phoneme /l/. The number of phonemes identified in American English varies from one linguist's analysis to another's. One commonly accepted list, given on pages A-10 to A-11 of *Appendix A*, identifies twenty-four consonants (including the four semivowels /h/, /w/, /r/, and /y/) and nine vowels (the five *short* vowel sounds of phonics plus the vowels heard in *log*, and *put*, the second syllable of *garbage*, and *boat* as it is pronounced in some New England dialects). As these sounds are segments of the stream of speech, they are called *segmental* phonemes. In addition, some linguists treat the four levels of pitch, four degrees of stress, and four junctures of American speech as *suprasegmental* phonemes. Diphthongs are not phonemes, but are composed of two phonemes.

phonemics – the science concerned with identifying, describing, classifying, and recording the phonemes in a particular language.

phonetic – pertaining to the production of individual speech sounds or phones.

phonetic analysis – the science concerned with identifying, describing, classifying, and recording individual speech sounds. Phonetics deals with speech sounds in general, whereas phonemics is concerned with the significant sounds of a particular language.

phonic analysis – a method of teaching beginning reading which starts with whole words in sentences and stories and then uses these words to call attention to letter-sound relationships in order to arrive at generalizations about these relationships.

phonic synthesis – a method of teaching beginning reading which starts with generalizations about the letters of the alphabet and the sounds they represent and proceeds to their combination into words and syllables.

phrase – a grammatical unit which contains two or more bases but does not contain a subject-predicate combination. Phrases may be classified according to their position in a sentence, as noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, and adverb phrases. Phrases introduced by a phrase marker, or preposition, are commonly called prepositional phrases. Example: *The child in the red coat ran across the street.*

$$\overbrace{\textit{The child }\underbrace{\textit{in the red coat}}_{\text{Adjective phase}}}^{\text{Noun phrase}} \qquad\qquad \overbrace{\textit{ran }\underbrace{\textit{across the street}}_{\text{Adverb phrase}}}^{\text{Verb phrase}}$$

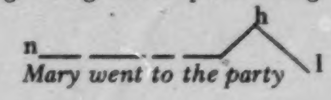
Defined in terms of intonational features, a phrase is as much of an utterance as appears between two terminal junctures, or pauses, or between the beginning of an utterance and the first terminal juncture. Thus, in the above sentence spoken with normal intonation, there would be a slight pause after *coat*, dividing the sentence into two phrases.

phrase marker – a preposition

pitch – the range of tones or *ups* and *downs* of the stream of speech. In English four levels of pitch are usually distinguished: low, normal, high, and highest. These may be symbolized either by letters (*l, n, h, hh*) or by numerals (/1/, /2/, /3/, /4/). Level *n* or /2/ is the pitch level most commonly used to begin sentences. In ordinary speech only the first three levels are used. Level *hh* or /4/ is heard in emphatic and emotional utterances. These levels are relative, not absolute; whether spoken by a man with a deep voice or a child with a high voice, a sentence could still have the same pitch contour or pattern of significant pitch changes. Example: An ordinary statement, *The pear is yellow,* would start at Level /2/, rise to /3/ at the beginning of *yellow* and drop gradually to /1/ at the end. See page A-133.

pitch contour – (1) the pattern of significant pitch changes in an utterance; (2) a broken line graph representing the significant pitch changes in an utterance.

Example:



n = normal; h = high; l = low.

prefix – an affix which precedes the base. In English, prefixes are always derivational; that is, they do not make inflected forms such as plurals or past tense. See *affix.*

question marker – a structure word. A question marker at the beginning of a sentence signals that the sentence is a question. Also called *interrogator.* Simple interrogators or interrogative adverbs are *how, why, when, where, whence, whither, whenever;* interrogative pronouns are *who, what, which, whose, whoever, whichever, whatever.*

reading – the process of reconstruction to some degree of a message encoded by a writer in graphic language.

recode – (1) word calling or sounding out – to go from the written code to its oral counterpart; or (2) to go from the oral code to its written counterpart (as in taking dictation); both *without meaning necessarily being involved.* See pages 7-8.

schwa (shwä) -- the vowel phoneme heard in weak-stressed syllables, such as the last syllable of *sofa.* Also the phonemic symbol /ə/. See page A-10.

sematics – the study of meaning.

Detailed definition: Philosophical semantics deals with notional meaning – ideas, notions, concepts, images, feelings. General semantics deals with referential meaning – objects, relationships, or classes of objects or relationships in the outside world that are referred to by a word. Linguistic semantics deals with distributional meaning – the positions a word fills in the system of the language, that is, in what contexts it can be used and what it contributes to those contexts. Examples: in dictionaries, defining a word by synonyms or longer expressions which suggest a concept associated with a word gives its notional meaning; defining it by means of a picture or diagram gives its referential meaning; using it in illustrative quotations gives it distributional meaning.

semivowel – one of four vowel-like sounds in English. Examples: /r/, /w/, /h/, /y/. Semivowels are characterized by rapid transition from one articulatory position to another, found not in the nuclear position in a syllable but rather in consonantal positions; that is, they are always in the same syllable with a true vowel which is the nucleus. They consist of a rapid movement of the articulators from an initial position to the position for the vowel, or the reverse, a rapid movement from the vowel position to the final semivowel position. Because of this rapid motion, they are sometimes called glides.

sentence connector — a structure word which joins two or more syntactically equivalent units in a structure which functions as a single unit. Also called *coordinators* (including *coordinating conjunctions* and *correlatives*). Examples: *and, but, not, or, as well as, together with, not (only)——but (also), either...or, both...and.*

short vowel — one of the five simple vowels heard in *bat, bet, bit, box,* and *but.*

sibilant — a consonant which is defined by the way the consonant sound is produced: channeling the blade and sometimes the tip of the tongue so as to project a jet of air against some point of articulation. Examples: the final sounds of *class, buzz, wish,* and *rouge.*

simple vowel — one of the nine vowels which either by themselves or in combination with semivowels make up the syllabic nuclei of most dialects of American English. See page A-10.

signal word — a structure word

special marks — the quotation mark and parenthesis, which, appearing in pairs, surround written or printed material to be considered in some way distinct from the rest of the material in which it appears. See page A-132.

starter — one of a group of structure words which sometimes signal the beginning of sentences. Examples: *Well, Oh, Say, Look.*

stem — the part of a word that remains morphemically constant as various prefixes and suffixes are added. A stem always contains a base; it may also contain affixes. Example: in the set *dog-dogs, dog* is the stem; in the set *reader-readers, reader* (consisting of base *read* and suffix *-er*) is the stem.

stop — a consonant which is defined by the way the consonant sound is produced: bringing an articulator against a point of articulation so firmly that the air stream is completely interrupted. Stops may be voiced or unvoiced. Examples: The beginning sounds of *boy, dog,* (both voiced); *pet, tap* (both unvoiced).

stress (accent) — the degree of emphasis or prominence a spoken syllable or part of an utterance receives. There are four degrees of stress in English, designated "heavy, medium, light, weak" or "primary, secondary, tertiary, zero." In normal English pronunciation there is only one primary stress in every word group or phrase.

Example: *Mrs. Jónes, the second grade teácher, took her class to the zóo.* See page A-133.

structure word — a word with little or no dictionary meaning but (1) has grammatical or structural meaning, (2) signals a relationship, (3) is used in combining other words into syntactic structures. Also called *function word.* Examples: *to, which, because.*

suffix — an affix which follows a base. See *inflectional suffix* and *derivational suffix.*

sustained terminal — a sharp cutting off of the stream of speech on a level pitch, which usually sets apart word groups or syntactical elements within a sentence. Also called *level terminal.* See page A-134.

syllable – (1) a unit of spoken language that is next bigger than a speech sound and consists of one or more vowel sounds alone, or of a syllabic consonant alone, or of either with one or more consonant sounds preceding or following; (2) one or more letters in a word, usually in dictionaries or glossaries set off from the rest of the word by a centered dot or a hyphen, roughly corresponding to the syllables of spoken language and treated as helps to pronunciation or as guides to hyphenation at the end of a line.

syllabic consonant – a consonant which forms the nucleus of a syllable. Examples: the last syllables of words like *fiddle* and *button*, which are considered syllabic /ᵊl/ and /ᵊn/ by *Webster's Third New International Dictionary, Unabridged* and some basal reader glossaries. (Some dictionaries and glossaries do not indicate syllabic consonants but treat such syllables as /əl/ and /ən/.)

syntactic – pertaining to syntax: the order of words in sentences, the structure of the language. Syntax is the division of grammar dealing with patterning of morphemes and words into larger structural units (noun and verb groups, phrases, clauses, and sentences).

transformational sentence – a sentence made by adding to, taking from, or changing the word order of a basic sentence according to certain rules.

triphthong – a syllabic nucleus of American English consisting of a diphthong followed by a further off-glide. Example: in the pronunciation of *bear* as /behr/, /ehr/ is a triphthong.

unglided vowel – a term used in some basal reader series to refer to the simple vowels of American English. It includes the short vowels plus those heard in *log* and *put*.

verb group – a unit consisting of a verb and verb markers. Sometimes called *verb phrase*. (See a different definition of *verb phrase* under *phrase* above.)

verb marker – a structure word which combines with verbs to make verb groups or verb phrases. Also known as an *auxiliary* or *helping verb*. Examples: forms of *be, have,* and *do; can, could, may, must, would, keep, get, go.*

voiced – pertaining to speech sounds produced when the vocal cords are brought so close together that the air passing through the opening (glottis) causes them to vibrate. Examples: "*Ah!*" or the beginning sound in *do*.

voiceless or unvoiced – pertaining to speech sounds produced with relaxed vocal cords and the glottis open. Examples: "*Shh!*" or the beginning sound in *to*.

vowel – a speech sound formed without any stoppage of the oral cavity or any constriction so narrow as to create friction. See page A-10.

vowel letter – one of the five letters, *a, e, i, o,* and *u,* which represent vowel sounds.

word form classes – the four main sets of English words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) which call to mind some fairly definite referent and whose systematic form changes comprise the grammatical inflections of English.

word order – the sequence in which words appear in English utterances. These patterns are limited, and variety is achieved through expansion, substitution, inversion, and transformation.

word recognition – recoding pronunciation and decoding meaning of a printed word.

INDIVIDUAL ASSESSMENT TASKS

for

SURVEY OF READING SKILLS FORMS A and B

To be used with
TEACHING READING SKILLS
Bulletin No. 246

First Preliminary Edition
(Working Copy)
Spring 1973

Montgomery County Public Schools
Rockville, Maryland
Homer O. Elseroad
Superintendent of Schools

Copyright 1973

by the

Board of Education of Montgomery County

Rockville, Maryland

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPYRIGHTED MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Board of Education of
Montgomery County

TO ERIC AND ORGANIZATIONS OPERATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION. FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM REQUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT OWNER."

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS COPYRIGHTED MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Rockville,
Maryland

TO ERIC AND ORGANIZATIONS OPERATING UNDER AGREEMENTS WITH THE NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION. FURTHER REPRODUCTION OUTSIDE THE ERIC SYSTEM REQUIRES PERMISSION OF THE COPYRIGHT OWNER."

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Appreciation is expressed to the following persons who worked on the preparation of these assessment tasks:

Miss Louise K. Grotlisch
Dr. Clifford J. Kolson
Miss Mary Frances Mitchell
Mrs. Helena C. Peters
Dr. Thomas R. Peters
Dr. Victor H. Small
Mrs. Ruth W. Yudkoff

229

INDIVIDUAL ASSESSMENT TASKS

This packet of assessment tasks is to be used as a follow-up to your administration of the *Survey of Reading Skills*, either Form A or Form B. You will find these assessment tasks useful too in other aspects of your instructional planning.

> The *Survey of Reading Skills* may be obtained through your principal who requests it from the area reading supervisor. Please read the *Administration and Interpretation Manual* accompanying the *Survey of Reading Skills* for specifics.

EACH TASK IN THIS PACKET AND IN THE *SURVEY OF READING SKILLS* IS KEYED TO A SPECIFIC SKILL IN *TEACHING READING SKILLS*, BULLETIN NO. 246.

If a student misses an item on the *Survey of Reading Skills*, use Individual Assessment Task 1 for that item. You want to consider whether: (1) the item was missed because the student misunderstood that particular item, or (2) the student really didn't know the answer to the item. Individual Assessment Task 2 can be used to evaluate growth after instruction on that skill.

Several of the assessment tasks include a paragraph to be read by the student. A notation is included with these paragraphs giving an approximate reading level based on the Fry Readability Graph (copy enclosed, page 66).

A sample individual pupil record sheet is attached to this packet for recording pupil progress in the skills. This record sheet is a copy of the reading skills checklist, pages 20-22 in the *Teaching Reading Skills* bulletin. This sample may be used as a master for duplicating additional record sheets for pupils in your class. The record sheet spans the ages 5 to 11, and at the end of the year should be placed in the pupil's cumulative folder for use by his or her succeeding teachers.

1. b) **Task:** Recognizes frequently-used words

Materials: Test sheet for each student

Procedure: Student pronounces the following words

TASK 1

of
put
are
is
was
to
two
one
a
these
there
them
that
then
on
it
when
I
at
in

TASK 2

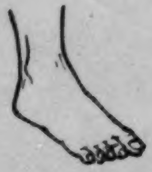
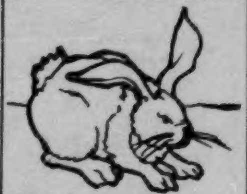
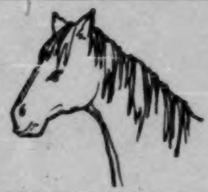
any
you
been
who
once
said
come
upon
has
their
do
have
very
want
does
were
four
many
where
give

2. b) **Task:** Identifies letter that represents beginning sound of a word

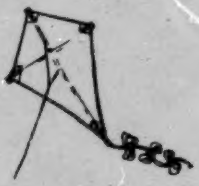
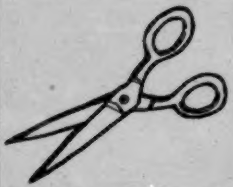
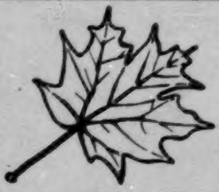
Materials: Test sheet for student

Procedure: Look at each picture. Say the word aloud. Then find the letter which stands for the sound at the beginning of the word. Point to the letter which stands for the beginning sound.

TASK 1

	d	f	m	t	o
	n	g	a	f	r
	s	n	h	r	m

TASK 2

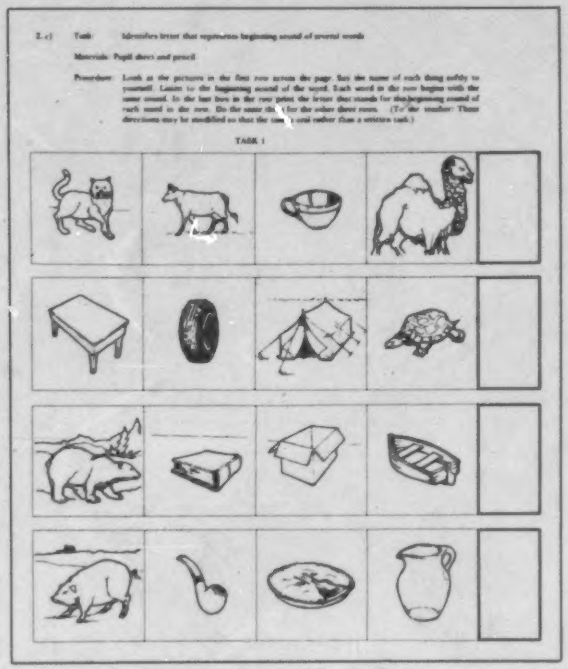
	l	m	r	k	s
	g	v	s	b	z
	l	p	f	t	a

2. c) **Task:** Identifies letter that represents beginning sound of several words

Materials: Pupil sheet and pencil

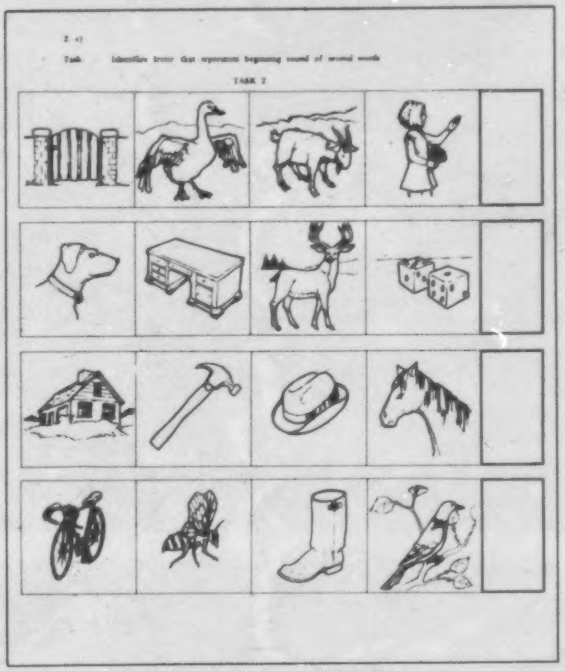
Procedure: Look at the pictures in the first row across the page. Say the name of each thing softly to yourself. Listen to the beginning sound of the word. Each word in the row begins with the same sound. In the last box in the row print the letter that stands for the beginning sound of each word in the row. Do the same thing for the other three rows. (To the teacher: Modify these directions, if desired, so the task is an oral one rather than a written task.)

TASK 1



Reduced Copy of Pupil Sheet

TASK 2



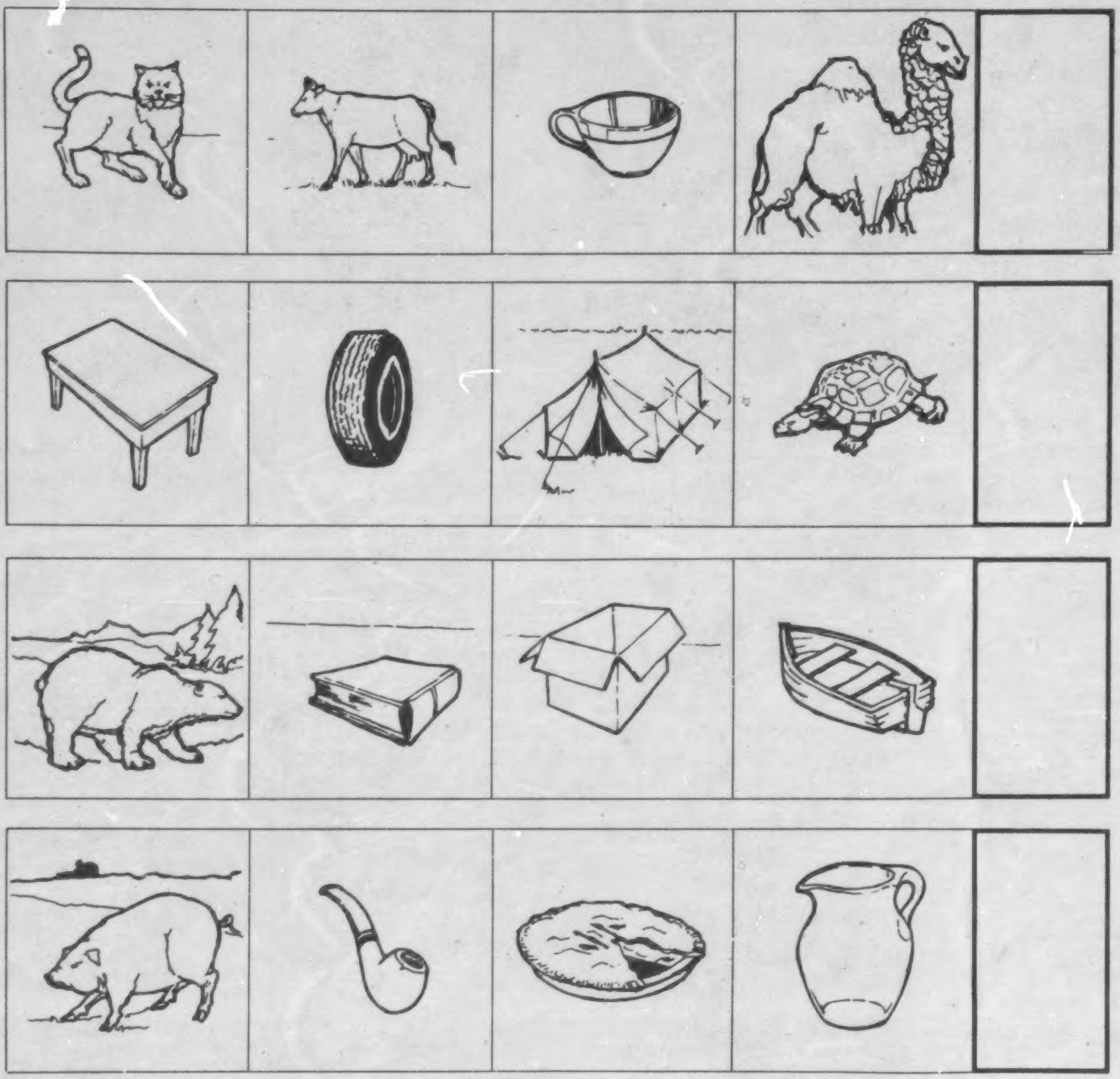
Reduced Copy of Pupil Sheet

2. c) **Task:** Identifies letter that represents beginning sound of several words

Materials: Pupil sheet and pencil

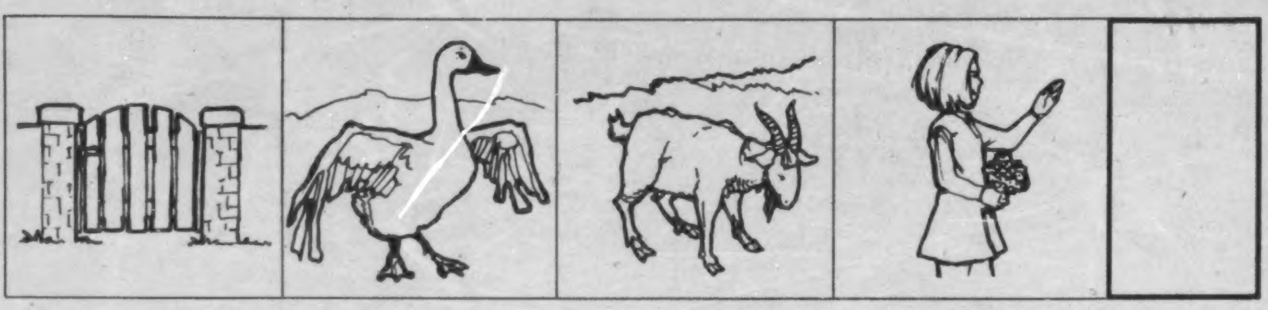
Procedure: Look at the pictures in the first row across the page. Say the name of each thing softly to yourself. Listen to the beginning sound of the word. Each word in the row begins with the same sound. In the last box in the row print the letter that stands for the beginning sound of each word in the row. Do the same thing for the other three rows. (To the teacher: These directions may be modified so that the task is oral rather than a written task.)

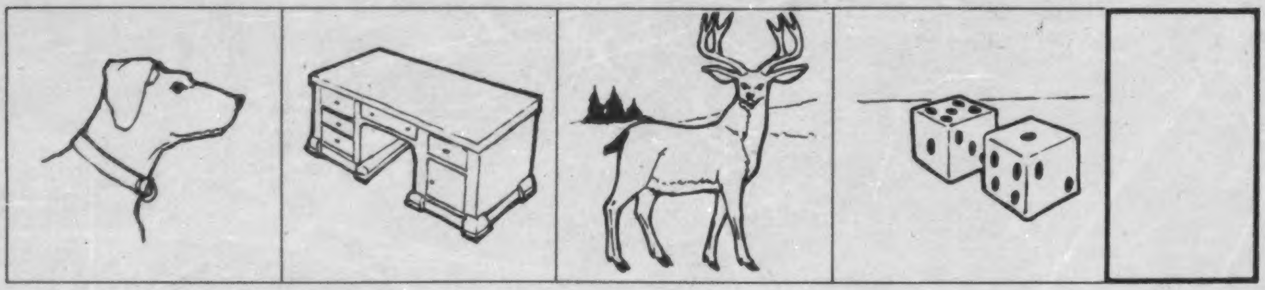
TASK 1

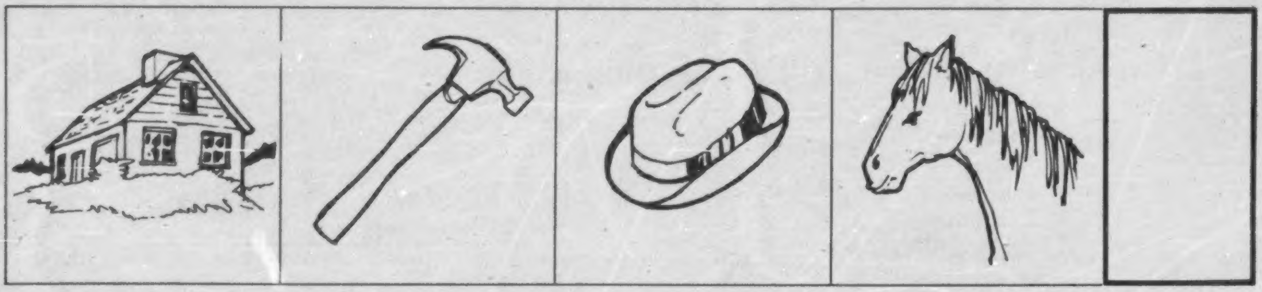


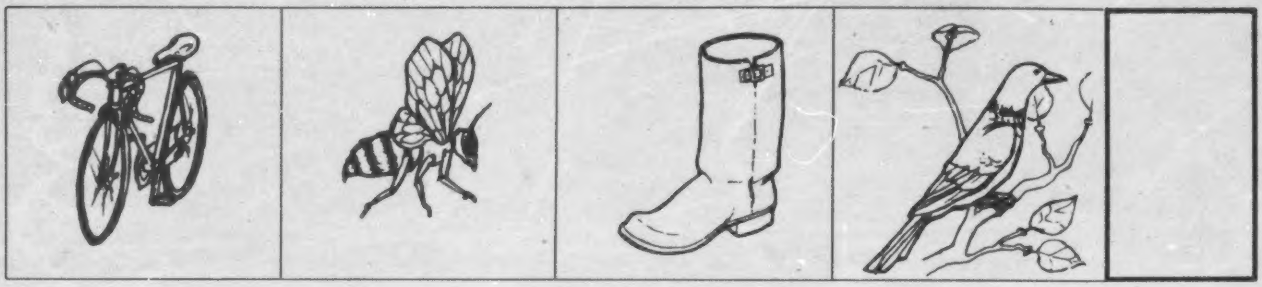
2. c) Task: Identifies letter that represents beginning sound of several words

TASK 2









3. a) **Task:** Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel-consonant/ phoneme pattern represented by (See each task for letter pattern of words).

Materials: Pupil sheet

Procedure: Pronounce each column of words (Read *down* the list).

3. a) (1) (a) CVC pattern with no initial C letter

TASK 1	TASK 2
Al	am
an	as
at	ax
Ed	if
in	is
it	on
on	ox
up	us

3. a) (1) (b) CVC pattern with differing initial C letters

TASK 1					TASK 2				
bat	Ben	bob	bid	bug	bag	bed	bin	cot	cub
cat	den	cob	did	dug	gag	fed	din	dot	dub
fat	fen	fob	hid	lug	hag	led	fin	got	hub
hat	hen	gob	kid	jug	jag	Ned	kin	hot	nub
mat	Ken	hob	lid	lug	lag	red	pin	not	pub
pat	men	job	mid	mug	nag	Ted	sin	pot	rub
rat	pen	lob	rid	pug	rag	wed	tin	rot	sub
sat	ten	mob	Sid	rug	sag		win	tot	tub
vat		rob		tug	tag				
		sob			wag				

3. a) (1) (c) CVC pattern with differing final C letters

TASK 1

bad
bag
ban
bat
Fab
fad
fan
fat
jab
jag
jam
Jan
mad
man
map
mat
pad
pal
pan
pat
sac
sad
sag
sap

hem
hen
hex
red
rep
ret
Rex
web
wed
wen
wet

bib
bid
big
bin
mid
mix
Min
fib
fig
fit
fix
nib
nil
nip
nix
tic
Tim
tin
tip

cob
cod
cog
cop
cot
hob
hod
hop
hot
lob
lop
lot
lox
mob
mod
mom
mop
pod
pop
pot
pox
sob
sod
sop
sox

dub
dud
dug
dun
gum
gun
Gus
gut
nub
nul
nut
rub
rug
run
rut
tub
tug
tun

TASK 2

cab
can
cap
cat
had
hag
ham
hat
lab
lad
lag
lap
nab
nag
Nan
nap
rag
ram
rap
rat
tab
tag
tan
tax

bed
beg
Ben
bet
med
Meg
men
met
peg
pen
pep
pet

did
dig
dim
dip
pig
pin
pip
pit
rib
rid
rig
rim
sin
sip
sit
six
kid
kin
Kim
kit

gob
got
job
jog
Jon
jot
nod
nog
non
not
rob
rod
Ron
rot
tog
Tom
top
tot

cub
cud
cup
cut
hub
hug
hum
hut
pub
pug
pun
pup
mud
mug
mum
sub
sum
sun
sup

3. a) (1) (d) CVC pattern with differing medial V letters

TASK 1

bad
bed
bud
bid

bog
big
bag
beg
bug

Dan
den
din
Don
dun

hat
hit
hot
hut

lad
led
lid

pat
pet
pot
pit

tap
top
tip

tan
tin
ten

ram
rim
rum

TASK 2

bat
bet
bit
but

ban
Ben
bin
bun

dad
did
dud

fan
fen
fin
fun

ham
hem
him
hum

lag
leg
log
lug

sap
sip
sop
sup

net
nit
nut
not

mad
mud
med
mid
mod

3. a) (2) (a) CVC + *e* pattern with no initial C letter

TASK 1

abe
age
ape
eve
ore

TASK 2

ace
ale
ate
ire
ode

3. a) (2) (b) CVC + *e* pattern with differing initial C letters

TASK 1	TASK 2
bake	like
lake	hike
cake	pike
make	dike
sake	bike
take	Mike
wake	

3. a) (2) (c) CVC + *e* pattern with differing final C letters

TASK 1	TASK 2
make	tide
male	time
mane	tile
made	tine
mate	tire

3. a) (2) (d) CVC + *e* pattern with differing medial V letters

TASK 1	TASK 2
male	mate
mole	mete
mile	mute
mule	mote
	mite

3. a) (3) (a) **CV + doubled C letters pattern, with no initial C letter**

TASK 1	TASK 2
add	ill
all	inn
Ann	odd
ebb	off
egg	

3. a) (3) (b) **CV + doubled C letters pattern, with final *-ff, -ll, -ss, -tt, -zz***

TASK 1	TASK 2
muff	mutt
mill	jazz
miss	dell
staff	class
putt	hill
fizz	kiss
sell	dull
pass	gaff
stiff	cliff
fuss	muss
gull	puff
less	mess

3. a) (3) (c) CV + doubled C letters, with final *-all; -oll, -oss, -ull*

TASK 1	TASK 2
ball	boll
boss	bull
roll	loss
toss	pull
hall	troll
full	fall
toll	moss
wall	tall

3. a) (3) (d) CV + doubled C letters, with final *ck*

TASK 1	TASK 2
back	peck
rock	luck
deck	lick
sack	lock
tuck	rack
cock	sick
buck	duck
pick	dock
beck	pack
kick	neck

3. a) (4) (a) CVVC with no initial C letter

TASK 1	TASK 2
eat	eel
aid	ail
aim	oaf
oak	oat
oil	out
owl	own
awl	auk

3. a) (4) (b) CVVC with no final C letter

TASK 1	TASK 2
sea	low
see	paw
too	dew
cow	tea
few	bee
snow	moo
jaw	how

3. a) (4) (c) CVVC with initial and final C letters

TASK 1		TASK 2	
beat	boat	beet	bowl
chief	soul	pain	town
vein	bout	great	dead
boil	could	boot	book
newt	fawn	feud	taut
suit	touch	group	cough
feed	maid	meat	thief
break	grown	rein	join
howl	hood	bawl	hoax
bread	bought	mould	loud
haul	moon	rough	would
soup	seize	fruit	seize

3. a) (5) (a) Initial C digraphs

TASK 1		TASK 2	
thin	phone	that	chin
ship	chip	shop	them
this	shot	thud	phrase
chill	than	shell	thing
thank	chef	chop	chef

3. a) (5) (b) Final C digraphs

TASK 1	TASK 2
dish	dash
bath	path
rich	much
graph	tough
sing	ring
rough	graph

3. a) (5) (c) Final C digraph + *e*

TASK 1	TASK 2
bathe	lathe
ache	gauche
lithe	loathe

3. b) (1) Recodes one-syllable words with initial consonant clusters

3. b) (1) (a) Initial C or C digraph + *r*

TASK 1	TASK 2
brag	crab
drop	fret
grab	prim
trip	shrub
throb	grim
crop	brad
frog	drum
prod	trot
shrug	thrush

3. b) (1) (b) Initial C + *l*

TASK 1	TASK 2
blot	clap
flag	glad
plan	blob
glass	flat
black	clam
plug	glum
fled	flip
clad	plot
glob	bled
clip	plum

3. b) (1) (c) Initial *s* + C

TASK 1	TASK 2
scan	slip
skip	smog
snap	spot
stop	swim
slot	snip
smug	scat
spin	step
swag	skin

3. b) (1) (d) Initial C clusters *qu-*, *dw-*, *tw-*, *wh-*

TASK 1

quit
twin
quill
whale
twist
dwell
whip

TASK 2

dwarf
what
twig
quail
when
quick
twill

3. b) (1) (e) 3 C letters that equal 3 sounds

TASK 1

scrap
spring
strut
squad
splash
stripe
squash
strap

TASK 2

split
squab
sprint
strip
squat
scrub
struck
stress

3. b) (2) (a) Final CC

TASK 1

act
self
elm
melt
end

ant
apt
gasp
next

raft
bulk
gulp
damp

sank
risk
mist
minx

TASK 2

left
elk
alp
imp
ink

lynx
ask
last
elf

helm
wilt
sand
mint

fact
kept
wisp
text

3. b) (2) (b) Final C + C digraph

TASK 1

gulch
Welsh
width
ninth
twelfth
health
inch
humph
munch

TASK 2

Ralph
wealth
pinch
triumph
month
lunch
mulch
breadth
twelfth

3. b) (2) (c) Final *-ald, -alt, -ild, -ind, -old, -ost*

TASK 1

bald
halt
wild
mind
bold
most
lost

TASK 2

malt
scald
child
cold
cost
find
post

3. b) (2) (d) Final CC*e*

TASK 1

bulge
dance
sense
change
else
since
pulse
hence
hinge
paste

TASK 2

else
range
bilge
false
waste
once
cringe
dense
fence
lance

3. c) Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel/ phoneme pattern represented by:

3. c) (1) CV or CCV

TASK 1	TASK 2
be	me
she	no
by	so
try	my
go	sly

3. c) (2) CV + *e* or *y*

TASK 1	TASK 2
day	boy
die	ray
may	cue
buy	lie
toy	they
dye	hay
doe	guy
due	toe
hey	tie
pie	lye

3. d) Recodes two-syllable words ending in *y*

TASK 1	TASK 2
bunny	pony
daddy	puppy
lady	baby
happy	funny
pony	dirty
candy	kitty
city	many
honey	money
donkey	chimney
	doggy

3. e) Recodes words with V letter followed by *r*

TASK 1

car
fur
jerk
fort
dirt
burn
berry
fire
circus
pore
serpent
barren
mirror
garden
horrid
siren

caravan
coral
tyrant
curio
chair
dear
early
board
flour
moor
cheer
door
wear
pour
tour
pierce

TASK 2

tar
sir
for
dark
fern
curl
carrot
pure
person
border
squirrel
carol
bird
market
merry
care

furry
fury
herald
spiral
pair
hear
earn
roar
sour
poor
deer
floor
bear
court
fierce
tour

3. f) Recodes words with *c* or *g* followed by *e*, *i*, or *y*

TASK 1

cell
cyst
gem
gym
icy
cage
ace
pencil
cider
magic
change
giant
giddy

TASK 2

cite
place
age
acid
gentle
cent
cycle
gypsy
fancy
margin
range
giraffe
giggle

3. g) Recodes words with letters which represent no sound

TASK 1

gnat
knot
lamb
scene
sign
fight
calf
isle
doubt
wren
who
hedge
sign
catch
hymn
hour
anchor
rhyme
guard
sword
unique

TASK 2

gnaw
knife
bomb
scent
bough
sight
could
island
debt
wrap
whole
edge
reign
solemn
itch
honest
orchid
rhythm
guest
two
mosque

3. h) Recodes words which do not conform to sound-spelling patterns

TASK 1		TASK 2	
ton	again	son	sure
move	shall	his	prove
done	among	wad	both
glove	broad	gone	what
friend	blood	dove	flood
bush	laugh	push	gauge
been	build	sieve	guild

4. Uses structural clues to word recognition

4. a) **Task:** Decodes compound words

Materials: Pupil sheet

Procedure: Have child read each word and give the meaning. Encourage him to indicate that he understands how the meaning of the component words contributes to the meaning of the whole compound word. Accept any reasonable answer, taking into account his language and experience background.

TASK 1	TASK 2
playground	sandbox
airplane	classroom
flagpole	mailman
rowboat	raincoat
afternoon	ponytail
birthday	cardboard
countdown	suitcase
evergreen	shortstop
barefoot	notebook
twenty-one	merry-go-round

4. b) Task: Decodes words with inflectional and derivational affixes

Materials: Pupil sheet

Procedure: Have child read words; discuss meaning with him in an informal general way.

4. b) (1) Noun plural inflections

TASK 1		TASK 2	
boys	mice	girls	halves
wishes	sheep	fishes	roofs
flies	tomatoes	spies	children
oxen	chiefs	potatoes	geese
wolves		deer	

4. b) (2) Noun possessive inflections

TASK 1		TASK 2	
boy's	dog's	girl's	rabbit's
children's	men's	child's	man's
boys'	mice's	girls'	tiger's
cat's	lion's	woman's	women's

4. b) (3) Verb number and tense inflections

TASK 1		TASK 2	
finds	hoped	looks	taped
fixes	added	mixes	picked
moved	suited	shoved	tapped
seeing	wanted	doing	catches
dreamed	hopped	schemed	loaded
laughed	rushes	talked	waited

4. b) (4) Adjective and adverb comparison inflections

TASK 1	TASK 2
harder	sweeter
highest	lowest
toughest	sadder
meaner	softest
funnier	lazier
nicest	tighter
happier	mightiest

4. b) (5) Derivational prefixes and suffixes

TASK 1		TASK 2	
thankful	operate	breakage	defrost
marvelous	youngster	booklet	proceed
unable	befriend	sharpen	recall
recorder	kingdom	childish	uncage
precede	ashore	active	backward
subway	sadly	afoot	action

4. c) Decodes contractions

Task: Decodes contractions

Material: Pupil sheet

Procedure: Have child read each contraction and give the two words from which it is formed.

TASK 1		TASK 2	
can't	don't	hasn't	won't
we'd	you're	she's	isn't
he's	I'm	I'd	I've
we're	'twas	'tis	he'd
they've	I'll	aren't	we're
shouldn't	would've	you'll	should've

5. **Uses knowledge of one-syllable word patterns to recode words of more than one syllable**

5. a) **Task:** Recognize oral syllables as units of language consisting of a vowel alone, a vowel preceded or followed by consonants, or a syllabic consonant

Materials: List of words to be pronounced by the teacher (not seen by child)

Procedure: Teacher pronounces word. Child repeats the word without seeing it and tells the number of oral syllables.

TASK 1	TASK 2
alone	bristle
baby	upper
pear	peach
apple	lazy
elect	detain
turtle	squirrels
volcano	satellite
librarian	bacteria

5. b) **Task:** When a V letter is followed by two different C letters and a V letter (VCCV), pronounces first syllable with a short vowel or a vowel affected by *r*.

Materials: Word list

Procedure: Teacher presents words on cards or in a list, and child pronounces words.

TASK 1		TASK 2	
canvas	doctor	napkin	orbit
market	silver	circus	timber
window	corner	bandit	velvet
capsule	balcony	magnet	fantasy

5. c) **Task:** When a V letter is followed by a doubled C letter, pronounces the first syllable with a short vowel followed by a consonant sound

Materials: Word list

Procedure: Have child read column 1 word, then use it to pronounce the corresponding column 2 word.

TASK 1

Column 1	Column 2
muff	muffin
fell	fellow
pill	pillow
mess	message
gull	gullet
skill	skillet
buzz	buzzard
puff	puffin
mutt	mutton
less	lesson
dill	armadillo
tell	intelligent

5. c) When a V letter is followed by a doubled C letter, pronounces the first syllable with a short vowel followed by a consonant sound (continued)

TASK 2

Column 1	Column 2
buff	buffalo
bill	billion
lass	lasso
mitt	mitten
fizz	fizzle
less	lesson
sill	silly
yell	yellow
lull	lullaby
ruff	ruffle
bass	ambassador
bell	rebellion

Have child read the column 1 word, then the column 2 word, and tell whether the vowel sound changes or stays the same.

TASK 1

Column 1	Column 2	
ball	ballot	becomes short vowel sound
hall	Halloween	
troll	trolley	
bull	bullet	vowel sound unchanged
bass	embassy	becomes schwa sound
lass	cutlass	

5. c) Have child read the column 1 word, then the column 2 word, and tell whether the vowel sound changes or stays the same. (continued)

TASK 2

Column 1	Column 2	
tall	tallow	becomes short vowel sound
mall	marshmallow	
roll	rollicking	
pull	pulley	– vowel sound unchanged
pass	compass	becomes schwa sound
miss	Missouri	

5. d) **Task:** Uses medial C clusters as a guide to pronunciation

Materials: Word list

Procedure: Have child pronounce words on list.

TASK 1	TASK 2
apron	apricot
cyclone	incline
emblem	hydrant
entrance	lobster
fabric	whisker
mustang	zebra
hybrid	empress
respond	reproach

5. e) **Task:** When a V letter is followed by a single C letter and another V letter (VCV), pronounces the first syllable either as an open syllable with a long vowel or schwa, or as a closed syllable with a short vowel followed by a consonant

Materials: Word list

Procedure: Have child pronounce words, trying both long and short vowels in first syllable to arrive at a word in his oral vocabulary. If he gives both possible pronunciations but does not recognize the word as one in his oral vocabulary, tell him which is correct.

TASK 1

bacon
local
balance
recent
cabin
lady
refer
tiger
radish
item
satin
delicate
palisade
mineral
galaxy

TASK 2

baby
camel
open
savage
label
lavish
sofa
rapid
robin
final
climate
melody
talisman
primitive
primary

5. f) **Task:** Pronounces medial C digraphs as single consonant sounds

Materials: Word list

Procedure: Have child pronounce words on list.

TASK 1

anchovy
dolphin
ashamed
anthem
archer
gather
sulphur
method
usher
either

TASK 2

elephant
fashion
author
bachelor
brother
nephew
panther
duchess
wither
marshal

5. g) **Task:** When a word ends in a C + l*e*, uses spelling pattern as a guide to pronouncing stressed first syllable, and pronounces last syllable as consonant + /l/ or /əl/

Materials: Word list

Procedure: Have child pronounce words on list.

TASK 1

beetle
bundle
eagle
uncle
nimble
ladle
rifle
simple
trouble
pickle

TASK 2

ample
handle
temple
purple
cycle
turtle
title
noble
double
trickle

5. h) **Task:** Decodes words in which adjacent V letters represent two vowel sounds in separate syllables

Materials: Word list

Procedure: Have child pronounce words on word list.

TASK 1

duet
cooperate
reedit
fluid
pliers
coaxial
dais

TASK 2

diet
react
ruin
reuse
create
deity
reelect

5. i) **Task:** Combine pronounced syllables and adjust pronunciation to produce a word with sounds and stress heard in normal speech.

Materials: Word list

Procedure: Have child pronounce each pair of words.

TASK 1	TASK 2
ace – palace	obtain – mountain
contain – bargain	pirate – berate
nature – mature	ace – necklace
mountain – maintain	nature – natural
inflate – climate	enrage – mirage
continent – continental	catastrophe – catastrophic

6. Decodes abbreviations

6. a) **Task:** Decodes abbreviations of common titles

Materials: List of abbreviations

Procedure: Child gives the title the abbreviation represents.

Mr.

Mrs.

Dr.

Rev.

Sgt.

6. b) Task: Decodes abbreviations of days, months, parts of addresses, measurement terms, a.m., p.m., etc.

Materials: List of abbreviations

Procedure: Child gives the word or words the abbreviation represents.

Mon.
Tues.
Sat.
Fri.
Sun.
Wed.
Thur.
Jan.
Oct.
Dec.
Feb.
Jun.
Aug.

Nov.
Sept.
Mar.
Apr.
lb.
in.
ft.
yd.
mi.
a.m.
p.m.
etc.

7. Uses context (semantic clues)

7.a) **Task:** Uses context (semantic clues) to anticipate and verify recoding of printed words into spoken words.

Materials: Sentences

Procedure: As the student reads a sentence aloud, he chooses the appropriate word from the two options.

TASK I

1. The pink (blankets – blossoms) are beautiful on the crabapple tree.
2. Father hung the (picture – pantry) that Mary painted over the fireplace.
3. The bear was frightened away from the hive by the angry (birds – bees).
4. The angry voices of the children who were (quarreling – questioning) upset Mother.
5. The man (led – fed) a donkey up the twisting mountain trail.
6. Don't (wail – wait) until December to do your holiday shopping.
7. Janie (threw – wore) her hat on the bed.
8. Susan put on her prettiest (doll – dress) for the party.

TASK 2

1. The (parrots – parents) taught the children a song.
2. The mailman put the (mail truck – magazine) in the mailbox.
3. The farmer planted the (cows – corn) in the field.
4. Father climbed the (ladder – mountain) to get on the roof.
5. The pitcher threw the (baseball – football).
6. Mother set the table and filled the (aquarium – glasses) with water.
7. Father (wrecked – parked) the car in the garage.
8. Father ate his eggs with bread (toasted – buttered) to a light brown.

7.b) Task: Uses context to hypothesize meanings of words not in oral vocabulary.

Materials: Test sheet for each child.

Procedure: Child reads each sentence then gives meaning of underlined words.

TASK 1

1. The krilosite rounded the corner with the siren wailing and the men holding on to the ladder.
2. The man became petrified as the bratnik leaped from the tree with a roar.
3. The brantacole shook its great antlers and stomped its hoofs.
4. He was so hungry he ate his toast without any lenner on it.
5. The cowboy threw the rensik over the cow's head.

TASK 2

1. The stanfliter had a roaring fire in it.
2. The starkin laid an egg a day.
3. The antergator lifted its trunk and let out a bellow.
4. He penticlons his cereal without sugar.
5. The airplane flew through stormy, black flonders.

7.c) Task: Uses context to decode homographs.

Materials: Test Sheet

Procedure: Have child read the sheet and give the meaning of the underlined words.

TASK 1

1. On the table was a box full of bats. I picked one up and swung it at an imaginary ball.
2. On the table was a box full of bats. I opened it, and they flew out in all directions.
3. As I looked at the pen I wondered how many pigs it had held.
4. As I looked at the pen I wondered if I would write a good story.
5. Will you read it to me? He read in a loud clear voice.
6. It was a live TV show. I live in Maryland.

TASK 2

1. The jury will convict him.
2. The convict came out of his cell.
3. Saw the board to fit the corner.
4. I saw the little car.
5. I can do it.
6. Open the can of spaghettios.

7. d) **Task:** Uses context to decode homophones.

Materials: Test sheet

Procedure: Have child read each pair of sentences then give meaning of underlined words.

TASK 1

1. They knelt at the alter and prayed. We can alter it by changing the color.
2. He placed the ring in a box. She decided to wring out the clothes.
3. The dog licked his paws. At the end of a sentence the reader should pause.
4. I am not interested in excuses. The knot was tied loosely
5. He put the ball in the hole. He ate a whole pie.
6. The cow ate the hay. Hey, wait for me.

TASK 2

1. He read aloud. He was not allowed to go.
2. The bear ate the honey. The man's head was bare.
3. A good idea is to pause for a rest. The cat licked his paws.
4. The prophet spoke to the people. The company made a profit.
5. Snow covered the fir trees. The thick fur on the animal kept him warm.
6. The candy cost a cent. The dogs followed the scent of the rabbit.

8. **Uses grammatical structure (syntactic clues) to derive meaning**

8.a) **Task:** Uses word order clues to meaning.

Materials: Envelopes containing sentences on strips cut so that each word is on a separate piece.

Procedure: Have the child assemble each sentence and answer the question given by the teacher.

TASK 1

Cut Sentences in Envelopes:	Teacher Questions
1. Bob gave Tip his dinner	1. Who was fed?
2. By the blue lake stood a white house.	2. What color was the house?
3. The tiger chased the deer.	3. Who chased the deer?
4. The bell was rung by the teacher.	4. Who rang the bell?
5. The children made valentines for their friends.	5. What did the children do?

TASK 2

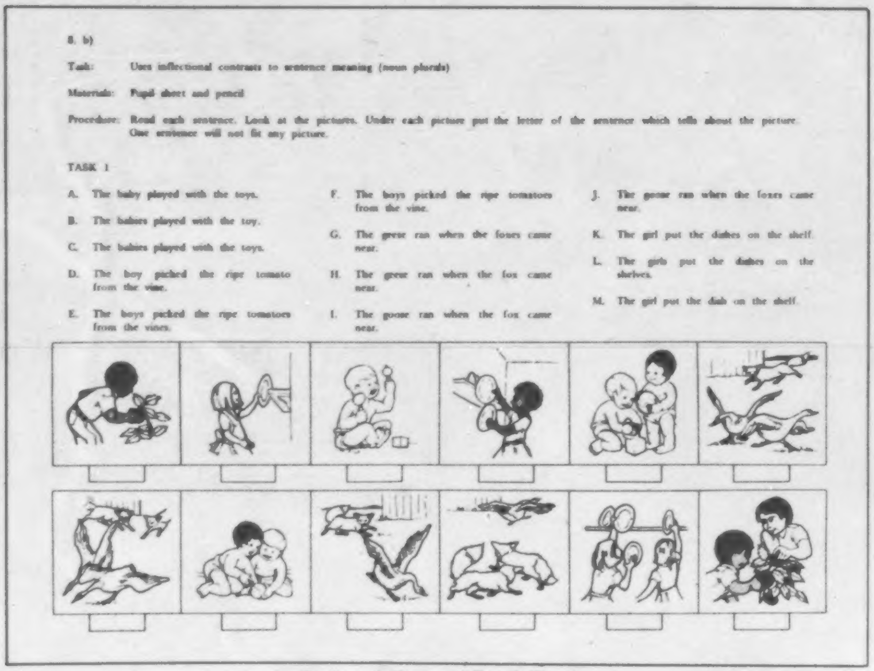
Cut Sentences in Envelopes:	Teacher Questions
1. The man was eating breakfast at the diner.	1. Where was the man eating?
2. After breakfast the children went to school.	2. When did the children go to school?
3. The little old woman felt lonely when her children left.	3. How did the woman feel when her children left?
4. It was a sunny day, and everyone felt cheerful.	4. What kind of day was it?
5. The fuzzy ducklings followed their mother to the lake.	5. What did the ducklings do?

8. b) **Task:** Uses inflectional contrasts as clues to sentence meaning (noun plurals)

Materials: Pupil sheet and pencil

Procedure: Read each sentence. Look at the pictures. Under each picture put the letter of the sentence which tells about the picture. One sentence will not fit any picture.

TASK 1



8. b)

Task: Uses inflectional contrasts to sentence meaning (noun plurals)

Materials: Pupil sheet and pencil

Procedure: Read each sentence. Look at the pictures. Under each picture put the letter of the sentence which tells about the picture. One sentence will not fit any picture.

TASK 1

A. The baby played with the toys.

B. The babies played with the toy.

C. The babies played with the toys.

D. The boy picked the ripe tomato from the vine.

E. The boys picked the ripe tomatoes from the vines.

F. The boys picked the ripe tomatoes from the vine.

G. The geese ran when the foxes came near.

H. The geese ran when the fox came near.

I. The goose ran when the fox came near.

J. The goose ran when the foxes came near.

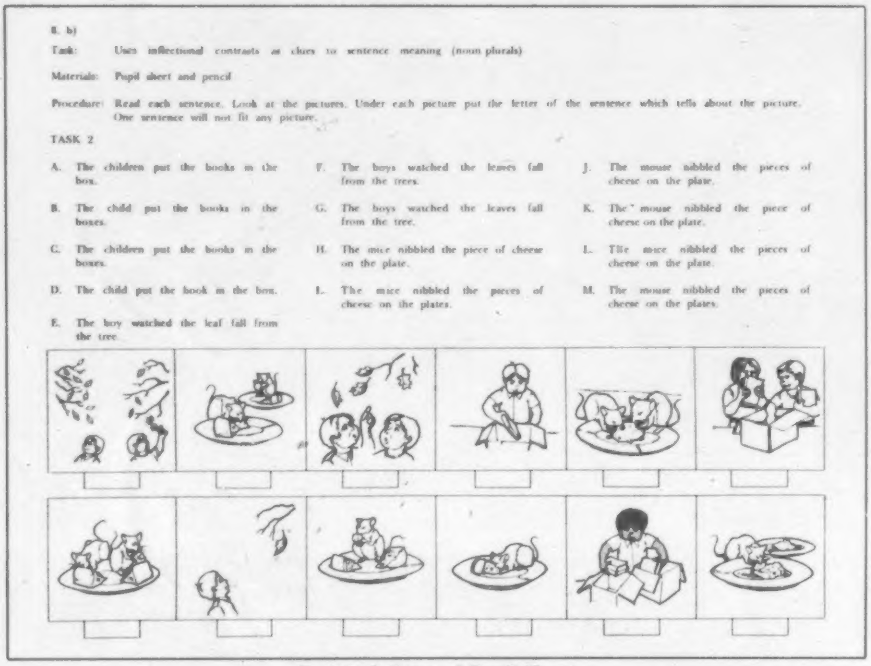
K. The girl put the dishes on the shelf.

L. The girls put the dishes on the shelves.

M. The girl put the dish on the shelf.

Reduced Copy of Pupil Sheet

TASK 2



8. b)

Task: Uses inflectional contrasts as clues to sentence meaning (noun plurals)

Materials: Pupil sheet and pencil

Procedure: Read each sentence. Look at the pictures. Under each picture put the letter of the sentence which tells about the picture. One sentence will not fit any picture.

TASK 2

A. The children put the books in the box.

B. The child put the books in the boxes.

C. The children put the books in the boxes.

D. The child put the book in the box.

E. The boy watched the leaf fall from the tree.

F. The boys watched the leaves fall from the trees.

G. The boys watched the leaves fall from the tree.

H. The mice nibbled the piece of cheese on the plate.

I. The mice nibbled the pieces of cheese on the plates.

J. The mouse nibbled the pieces of cheese on the plate.

K. The mouse nibbled the piece of cheese on the plate.

L. The mice nibbled the pieces of cheese on the plate.

M. The mouse nibbled the pieces of cheese on the plates.

Reduced Copy of Pupil Sheet

8. b)

Task: Uses inflectional contrasts to sentence meaning (noun plurals)

Materials: Pupil sheet and pencil

Procedure: Read each sentence. Look at the pictures. Under each picture put the letter of the sentence which tells about the picture. One sentence will not fit any picture.

TASK 1

A. The baby played with the toys.

B. The babies played with the toy.

C. The babies played with the toys.

D. The boy picked the ripe tomato from the vine.

E. The boys picked the ripe tomatoes from the vines.

F. The boys picked the ripe tomatoes from the vine.

G. The geese ran when the foxes came near.

H. The geese ran when the fox came near.

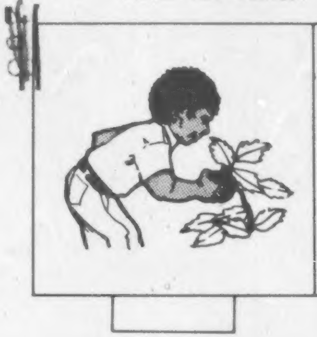
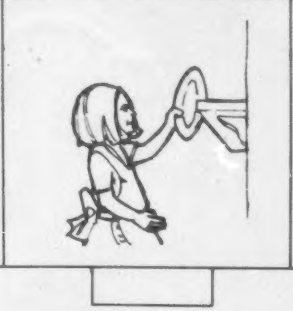
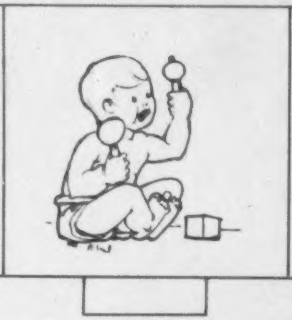
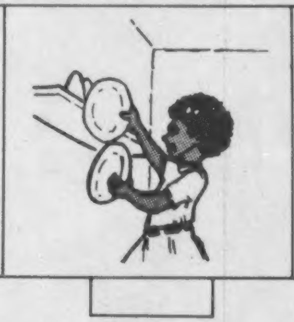
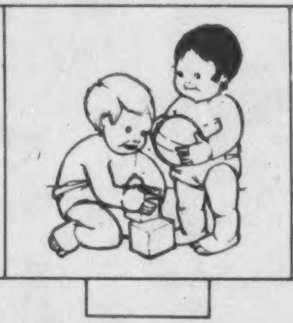
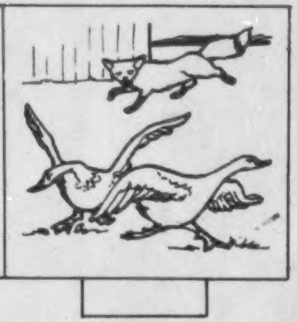
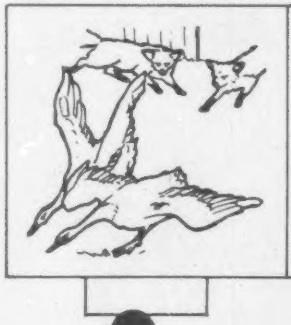
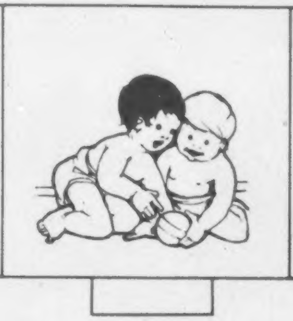
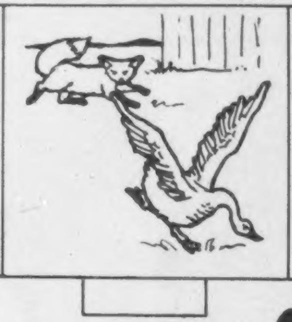
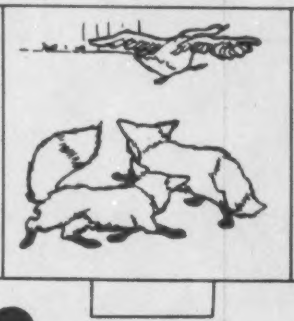
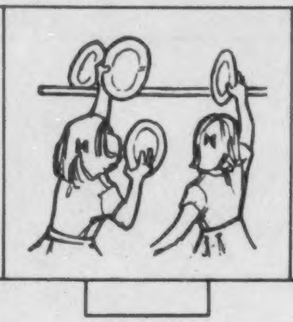
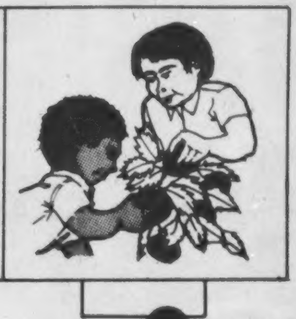
I. The goose ran when the fox came near.

J. The goose ran when the foxes came near.

K. The girl put the dishes on the shelf.

L. The girls put the dishes on the shelves.

M. The girl put the dish on the shelf.

8. b)

Task: Uses inflectional contrasts as clues to sentence meaning (noun plurals)

Materials: Pupil sheet and pencil

Procedure: Read each sentence. Look at the pictures. Under each picture put the letter of the sentence which tells about the picture. One sentence will not fit any picture.

TASK 2

A. The children put the books in the box.

B. The child put the books in the boxes.

C. The children put the books in the boxes.

D. The child put the book in the box.

E. The boy watched the leaf fall from the tree.

F. The boys watched the leaves fall from the trees.

G. The boys watched the leaves fall from the tree.

H. The mice nibbled the piece of cheese on the plate.

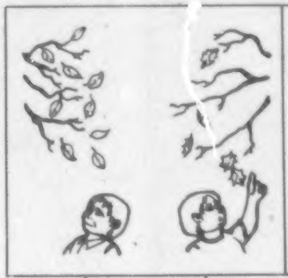
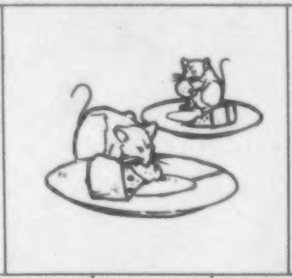
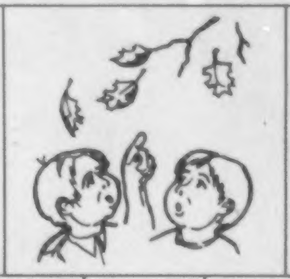
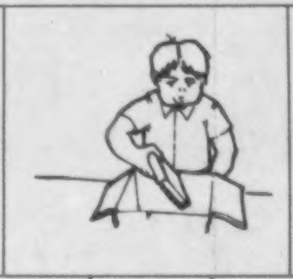
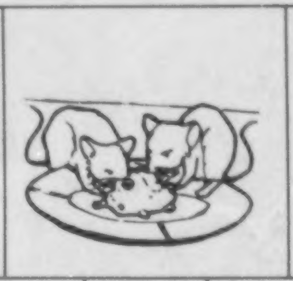
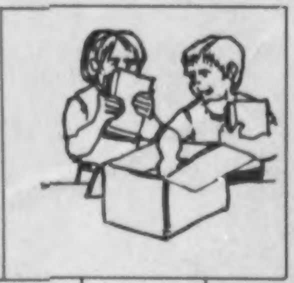
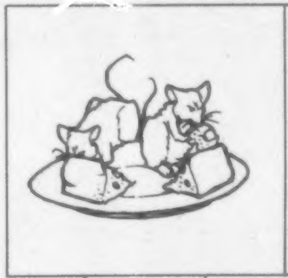
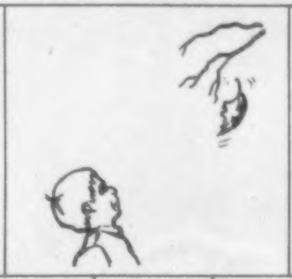
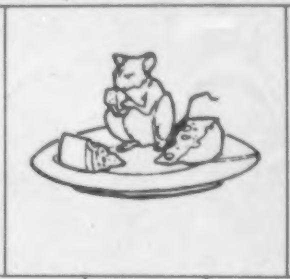
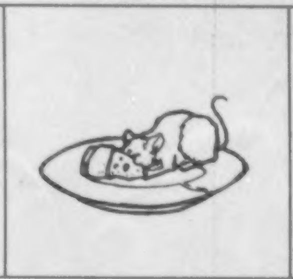
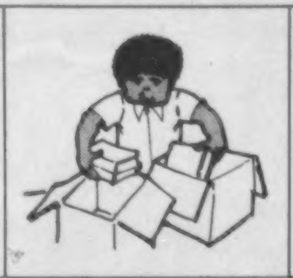
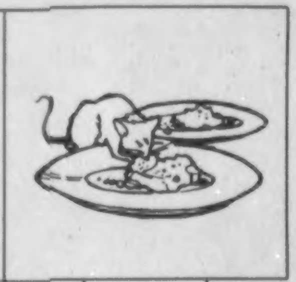
I. The mice nibbled the pieces of cheese on the plates.

J. The mouse nibbled the pieces of cheese on the plate.

K. The mouse nibbled the piece of cheese on the plate.

L. The mice nibbled the pieces of cheese on the plate.

M. The mouse nibbled the pieces of cheese on the plates.

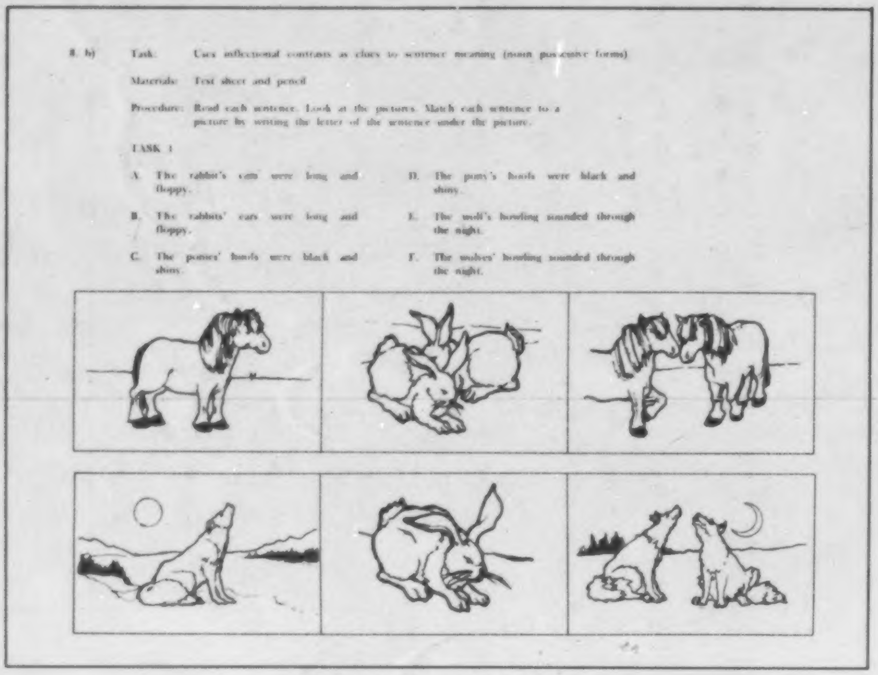













8. b) **Task:** Uses inflectional contrasts as clues to sentence meaning (noun possessive forms)

Materials: Pupil sheet and pencil

Procedure: Read each sentence. Look at the pictures. Match each sentence to a picture by writing the letter of the sentence under the picture.

TASK 1



8. b) Task: Uses inflectional contrasts as clues to sentence meaning (noun possessive forms)

Materials: Test sheet and pencil

Procedure: Read each sentence. Look at the pictures. Match each sentence to a picture by writing the letter of the sentence under the picture.

TASK 1

A. The rabbit's ears were long and floppy.

B. The rabbits' ears were long and floppy.

C. The ponies' hoofs were black and shiny.

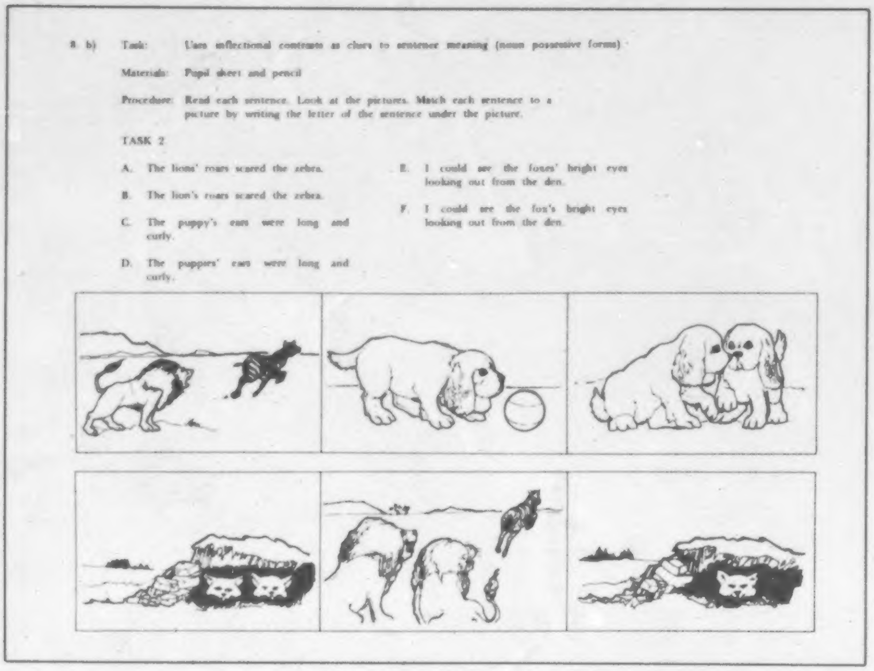
D. The pony's hoofs were black and shiny.

E. The wolf's howling sounded through the night.

F. The wolves' howling sounded through the night.

Reduced Copy of Pupil Sheet

TASK 2



8. b) Task: Uses inflectional contrasts as clues to sentence meaning (noun possessive forms)

Materials: Pupil sheet and pencil

Procedure: Read each sentence. Look at the pictures. Match each sentence to a picture by writing the letter of the sentence under the picture.

TASK 2

A. The lions' roars scared the zebra.

B. The lion's roars scared the zebra.

C. The puppy's ears were long and curly.

D. The puppies' ears were long and curly.

E. I could see the foxes' bright eyes looking out from the den.

F. I could see the fox's bright eyes looking out from the den.

Reduced Copy of Pupil Sheet

8. b) Task: Uses inflectional contrasts as clues to sentence meaning (noun possessive forms)

Materials: Test sheet and pencil

Procedure: Read each sentence. Look at the pictures. Match each sentence to a picture by writing the letter of the sentence under the picture.

TASK 1

A. The rabbit's ears were long and floppy.

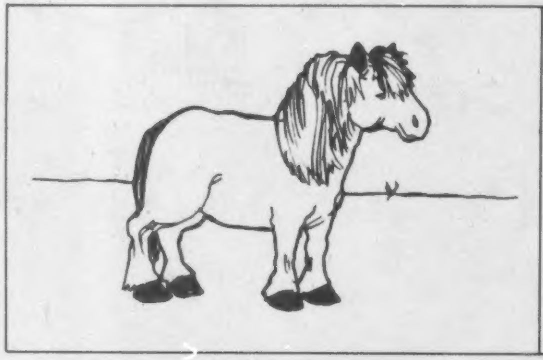
B. The rabbits' ears were long and floppy.

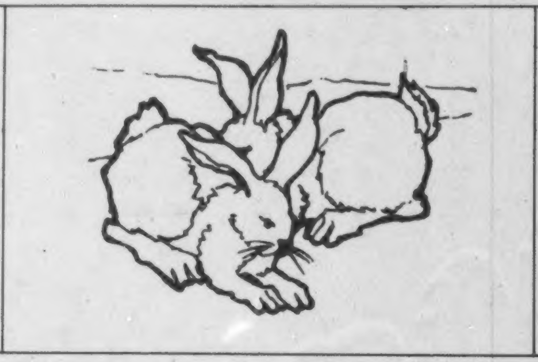
C. The ponies' hoofs were black and shiny.

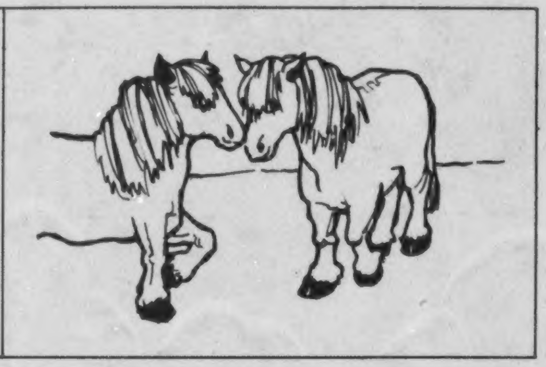
D. The pony's hoofs were black and shiny.

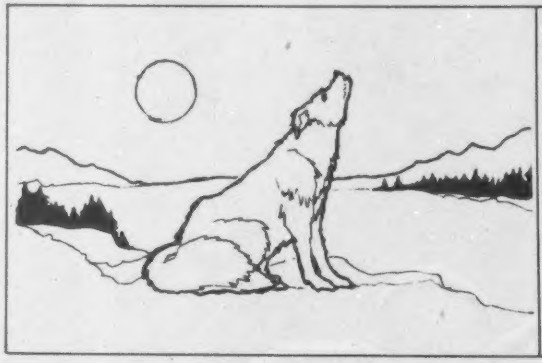
E. The wolf's howling sounded through the night.

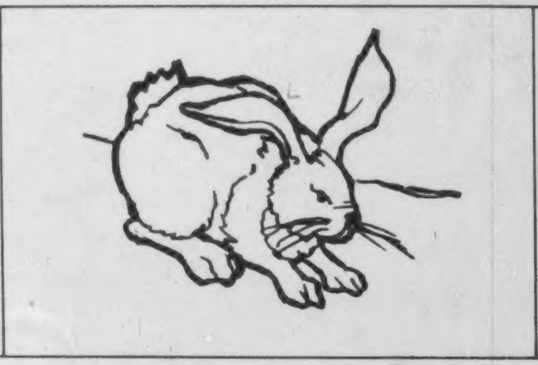
F. The wolves' howling sounded through the night.

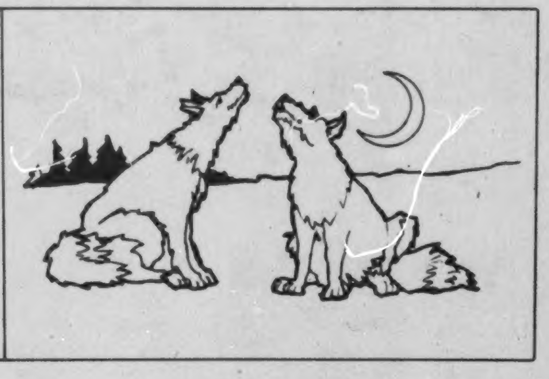












8. b) Task: Uses inflectional contrasts as clues to sentence meaning (noun possessive forms)

Materials: Pupil sheet and pencil

Procedure: Read each sentence. Look at the pictures. Match each sentence to a picture by writing the letter of the sentence under the picture.

TASK 2

A. The lions' roars scared the zebra.

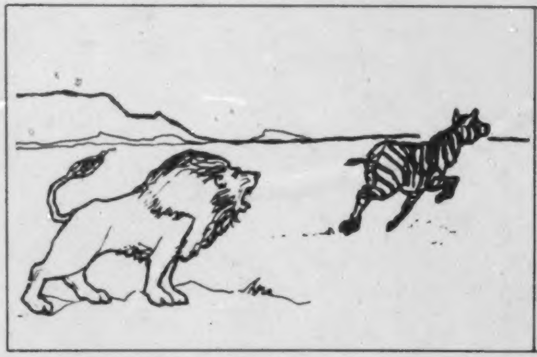
B. The lion's roars scared the zebra.

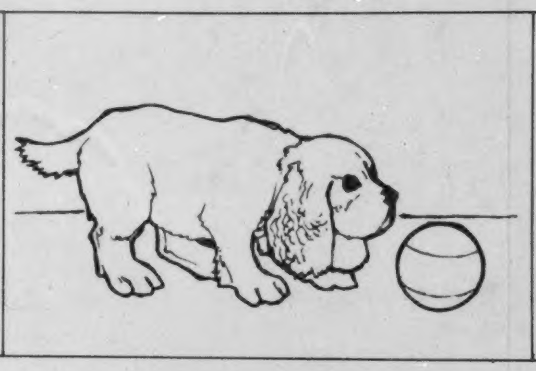
C. The puppy's ears were long and curly.

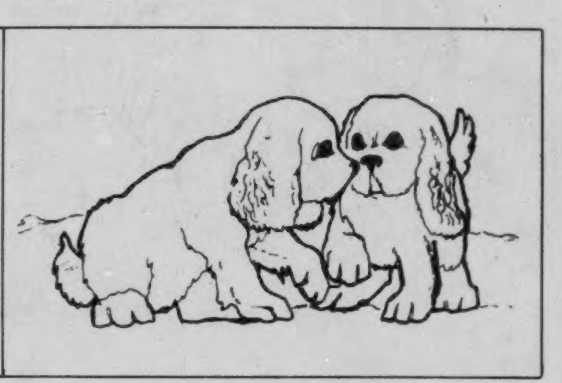
D. The puppies' ears were long and curly.

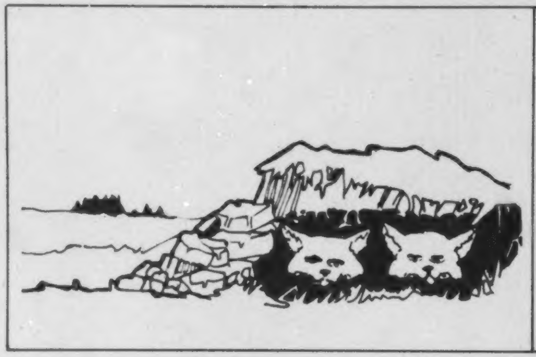
E. I could see the foxes' bright eyes looking out from the den.

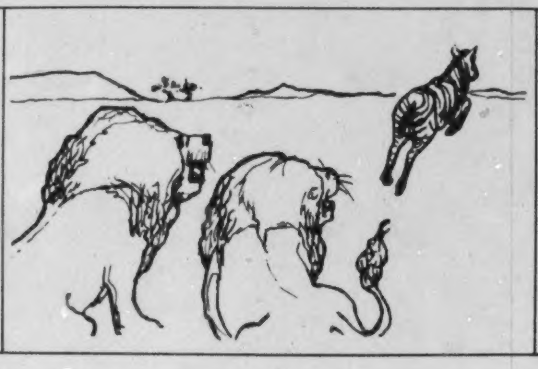
F. I could see the fox's bright eyes looking out from the den.

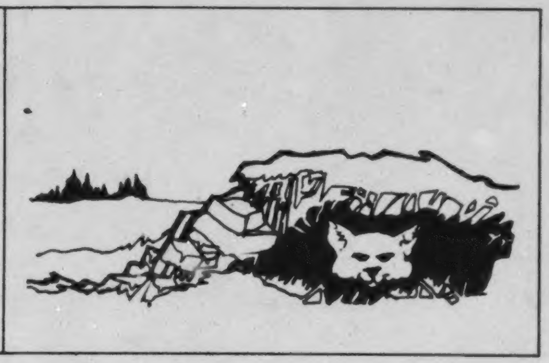












8.b) Task: Uses derivational contrasts (prefixes and suffixes) as clues to meaning

Materials: Test sheet

Procedure: Have the child read each pair of sentences, point out the difference in structure, and explain the difference in meaning.

TASK 1

1. He petted the friendly dog.

   He petted the friendless dog.

2. The parks have been beautiful this spring.

   The parks have been beautified this spring.

3. The patient was semiconscious when he arrived at the hospital.

   The patient was unconscious when he arrived at the hospital.

4. Many new products were imported by the company last year.

   Many new products were exported by the company last year.

5. The explorers were roped together as they ascended the mountain.

   The explorers were roped together as they descended the mountain.

6. Children are sometimes very thoughtful of their mother.

   Children are sometimes very thoughtless of their mothers.

8.b) Uses derivational contrasts (prefixes and suffixes) as clues to meaning (continued)

TASK 2

1. The team felt hopeful as they went into the final quarter of the game.

   The team felt hopeless as they went into the final quarter of the game.

2. The weird thing from outer space seemed superhuman.

   The weird thing from outer space seemed subhuman.

3. The various weather reports were full of predictions.

   The various weather reports were full of contradictions.

4. The little boy felt dejected as he sat in the classroom all alone.

   The little boy felt rejected as he sat in the classroom all alone.

5. Many new products were reported by the company last year.

   Many new product were transported by the company last year.

6. The cereal company made a study of the consumption of its breakfast foods.

   The cereal company made a study of the consumers of its breakfast foods.

7. Bobby's old, worn cap was replaced.

   Bobby's old, worn cap was misplaced.

8.c) (1) **Task:** Uses structure words (noun determiners: possessive adjectives) as clues to sentence meaning

Materials: Test sheet for each child

Procedure: Read the paragraph and answer the questions.

Reading level of paragraphs:
Task 1 – 1^1
Task 2 – 4
Per Fry Readability Graph

TASK 1

Tom is a little boy. His birthday was last week. He got a dog for his birthday. One day his pet ran away. His sister, Sue, said, "I feel sad too because your pet ran away. Our friend, Jane, can help. Her father is a policeman. His job is to help us."

1. Whose father is a policeman? ______________________

2. Who has a sister named Sue? ______________________

3. Who had a birthday? ______________________

4. Whose pet ran away? ______________________

5. Whose friend is Jane? ______________________

TASK 2

Susan said to her friend Sally, "Jimmy, Mary, and I went to the park after school. Jimmy carried our skates, while Mary rode his bicycle. When he took the bike home, we forgot that her books and my mittens were in the basket under his sweater. Let's take your dog and walk over to his house to get them."

"O.K." said Sally. "Get its sweater and we'll go."

1. To whom did the bicycle belong? ______________________

2. To whom did the skates belong? ______________________

3. To whom did the books belong? ______________________

4. To whom did the mittens belong? ______________________

5. To whom did the dog belong? ______________________

6. Who was a friend of Sally? ______________________

7. To whom did the sweaters belong? __________ and __________

8.c) (1) **Task:** Uses structure words (noun determiners: demonstrative adjectives) as clues to sentence meaning

Materials: Test sheet for each child

Procedure: Child reads the paragraph and answers the questions.

Reading level of paragraphs:
Task 1 – 2^2
Task 2 – 2^2
Per Fry Readability Graph

TASK 1

Tom and Bob were sitting near the table. A pile of spelling books was on the table near them. A pile of arithmetic books was on the other side of the room. The teacher said, "Take all the books to the book closet." Tom said, "I'll take these books. You take those." "O.K.," said Bob.

Which boy carried the arithmetic books? ______ How do you know? ______

Which boy carried the spelling books? ______ How do you know? ______

TASK 2

Jimmy and Larry were in the kitchen. They were watching Mother pack a box of fried chicken for a picnic. A box of fruit and cookies sat on the chair by the kitchen door, all ready to go. As Mother finished her job, she said, "Larry, you carry that box out to the car. Jimmy, you can take this one." The boys rushed to do as she asked, because they were eager to get started.

Which boy carried the fried chicken? ______ How do you know? ______

Which boy carried the cookies and fruit? ______ How do you know? ______

8.c) (1) **Task:** Uses structure words (Noun determiners: cardinal and ordinal, indefinite adjectives) as clues to sentence meaning

Materials: Test sheet for each child

Procedure: Read the paragraph. Put a T by the sentences which are true. Put an F by the sentences which are not true.

Reading level of paragraphs:
Task 1 – 3
Task 2 – 2^2
Per Fry Readability Graph

TASK 1

Our apple tree bore one hundred apples this year. Ten apples were ripe before the end of August, and they were small. The other ninety apples ripened in September, and they were big and juicy. Five apples had worms in them. I took twelve apples to school for my lunch during October. Mother used eighty apples to make pies and applesauce.

1. Not many apples ripened in August. ______

2. Most apples ripened in September. ______

3. Some apples were big and juicy. ______

4. Many apples were small. ______

5. Several apples were wormy. ______

6. I took most of the apples to school for lunch. ______

7. Mother used a few apples for pies and applesauce. ______

8. The first apples to ripen were large. ______

8.c) (1) Uses structure words (Noun determiners: cardinal and ordinal, indefinite adjectives) as clues to sentence meaning (continued)

TASK 2

There were twenty-four children in a class. Eighteen children walked to school. Six children rode the school bus. Nineteen children bought lunch in the school cafeteria. Four children brought their lunch from home and three children bought milk. One child went home for lunch.

1. Most children in the class rode the bus to school. _____
2. Some children walked to school. _____
3. Many children bought lunch in the cafeteria. _____
4. Several children went home for lunch. _____
5. A few children bought milk. _____
6. No children rode the bus to school. _____
7. All children in the class ate lunch at school. _____
8. Not many children in the class brought their lunch to school. _____

8.c) (2) **Task:** Uses verb markers (auxiliaries) as clues to sentence meaning

Materials: Pupil test sheet

Procedure: Have child read the sentences and select the correct response.

TASK 1

1. The principal (does – do) provide leadership.
2. The principal (has to – have to) provide leadership.
3. The teacher (is – are) moving in a new direction.
4. The children (is – are) being challenged.
5. The teacher (got – get) moving in a new direction.

TASK 2

1. The cook (do – does) provide the food.
2. The salesmen (have to – has to) drive their own cars.
3. The car (is – are) going in the right direction.
4. The players (is – are) being trained.
5. They will (get – got) going by the time of the first game.

8.c) (2) **Task:** Uses verb markers (auxiliaries) as clues to sentence meaning

Materials: Pupil Test Sheet

Procedure: Have the child read the sentence and tell whether it is talking about one animal or more than one animal.

TASK 1

1. The sheep were frightened by the wolf.
2. The sheep was frightened by the wolf.
3. The deer is drinking at the lake.
4. The deer are drinking at the lake.

TASK 2

1. The buffalo was getting ready to charge.
2. The buffalo were getting ready to charge.
3. The moose sometimes do wander into our camp.
4. The moose sometimes does wander into our camp.

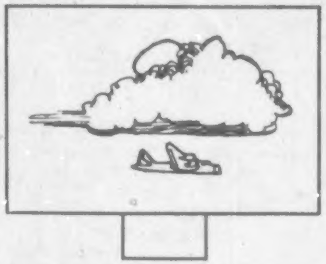
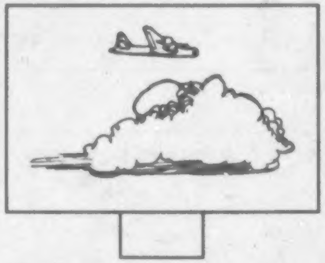
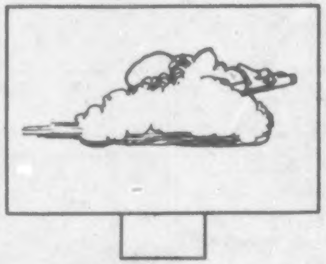
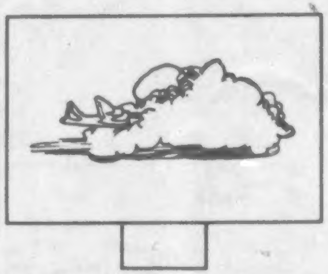
TASK 1

8. c) (3) Uses prepositions as clues to sentence meaning

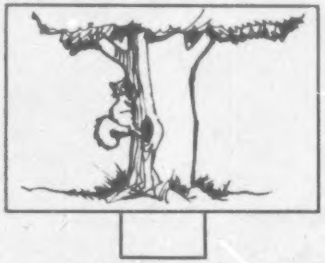
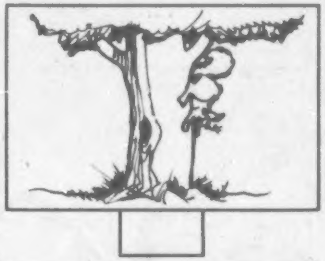
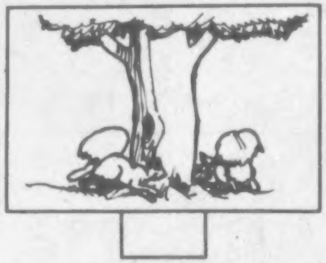
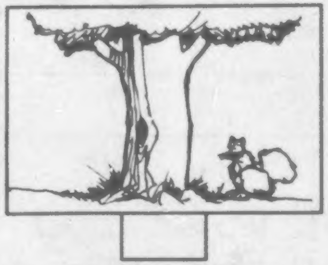
Materials: Test Sheet for each child

Directions: Put the letter of the phrase under the picture which best illustrates the phrase. One picture will not have a letter under it.

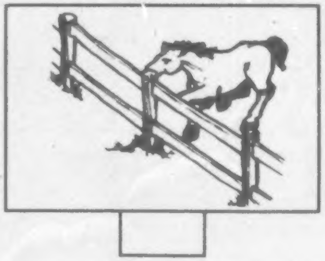
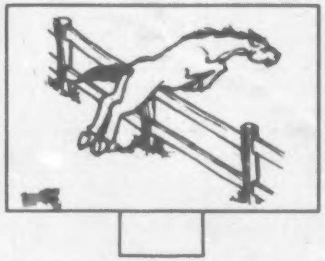
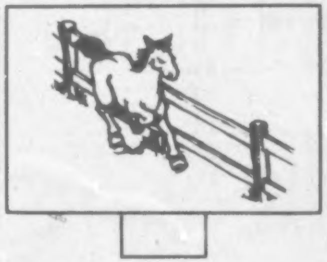
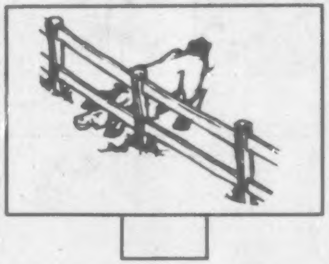
1. A. above the clouds
   B. beneath the clouds
   C. into the clouds

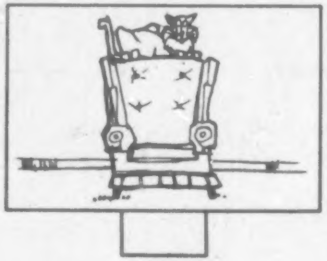
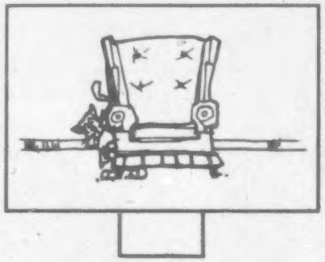
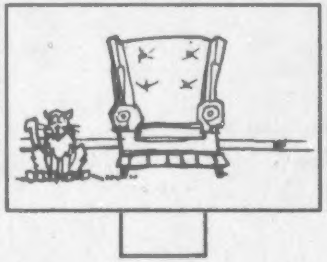
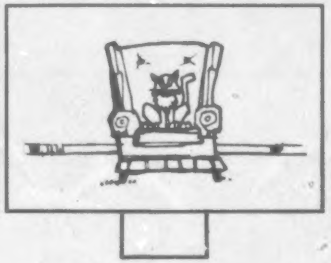
2. A. up the tree
   B. down the tree
   C. around the tree

3. A. over the fence
   B. along the fence
   C. up to the fence

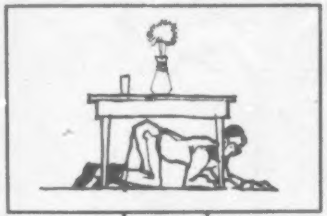
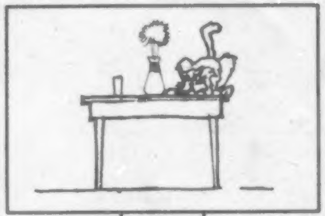
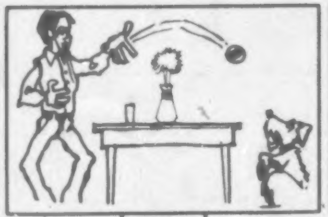
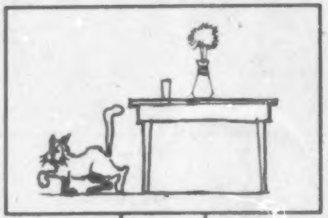
4. A. beside the chair
   B. in the chair
   C. behind the chair

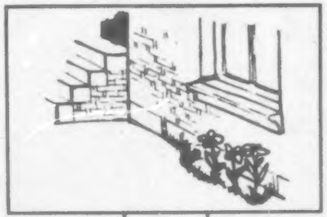
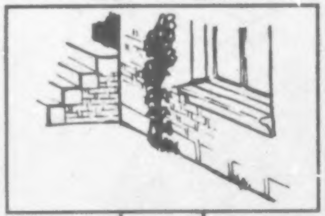
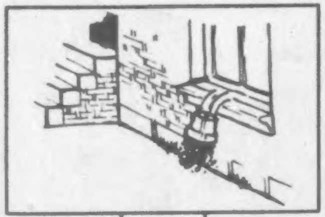
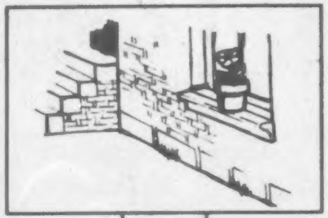
TASK 1

8. c) (3) Uses prepositions as clues to sentence meaning (continued)

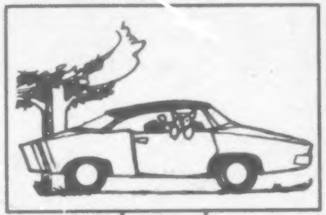
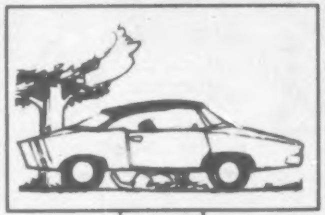
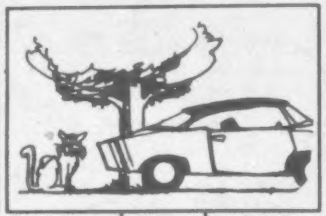
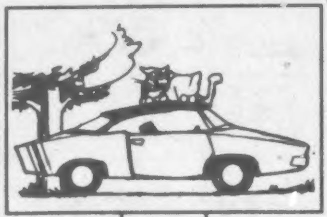
5. A. across the table
   B. away from the table
   C. underneath the table

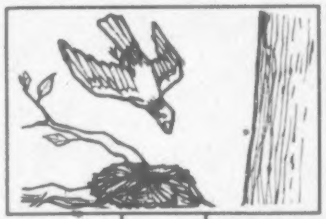
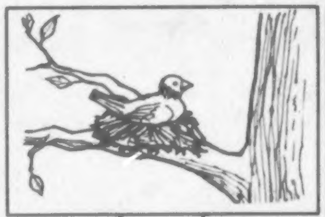
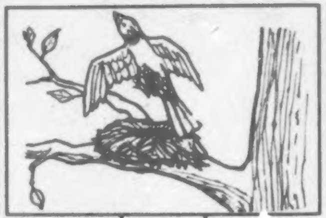
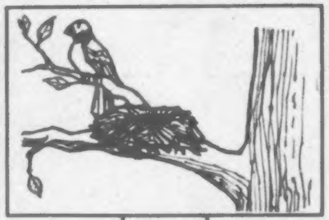
6. A. off the window sill
   B. below the window sill
   C. on the window sill

7. A. in back of the car
   B. inside the car
   C. on top of the car

8. A. from the nest
   B. upon the nest
   C. toward the nest

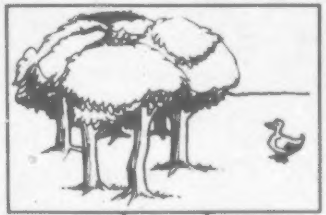
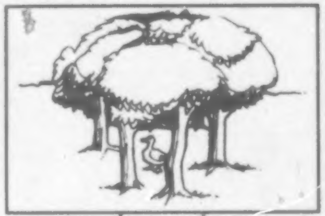
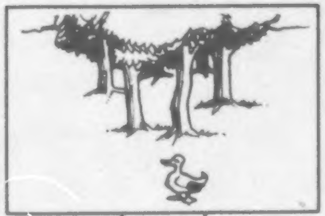
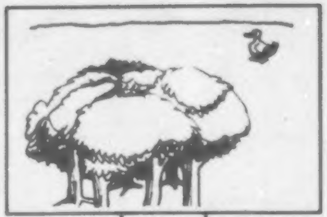
TASK 1

8. c) (3) Uses prepositions as clues to sentence meaning (continued)

9. A. among the trees

B. beyond the trees

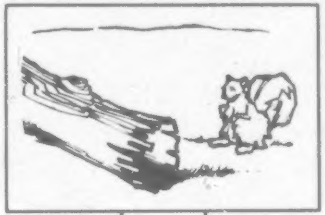
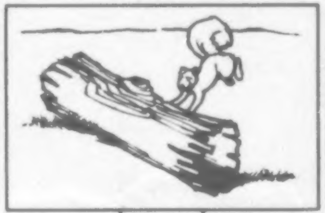
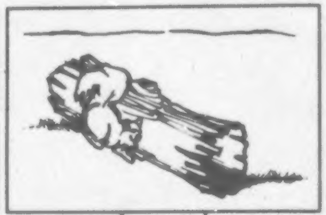
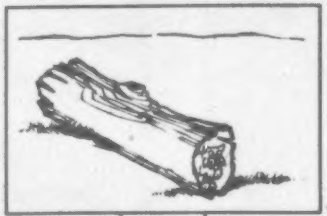
C. in front of the trees

10. A. onto the hollow log

B. alongside the hollow log

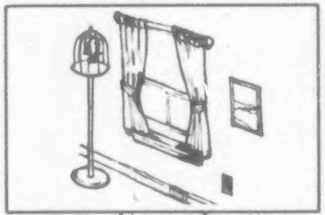
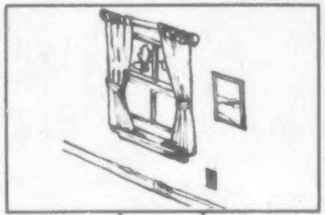
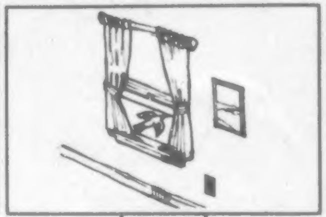
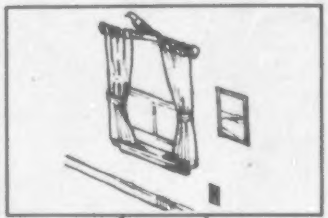
C. within the hollow log

11. A. out the window

B. outside the window

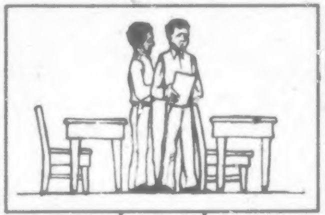
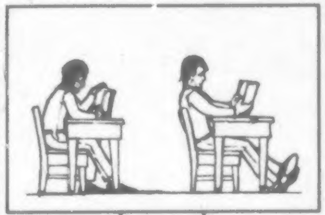
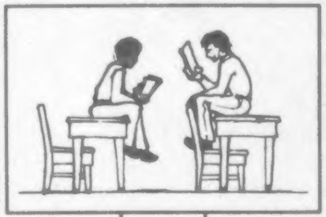
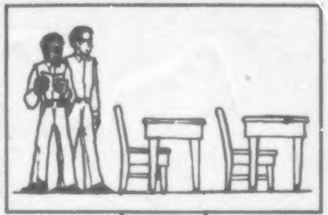
C. next to the window

12. A. between the desks

B. near the desks

C. at the desks

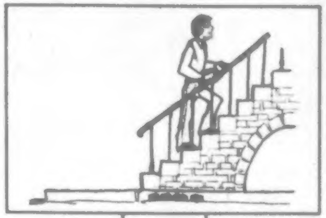
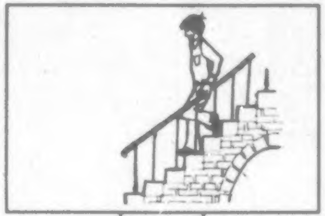
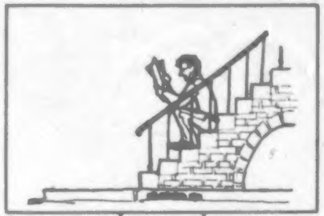
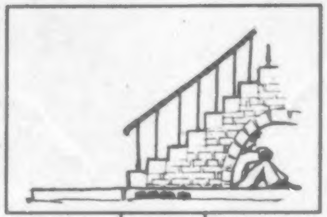
TASK 2

8. c) (3) Uses prepositions as clues to sentence meaning

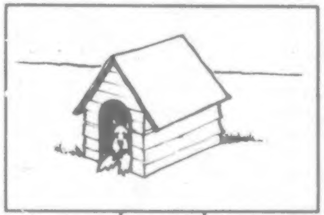
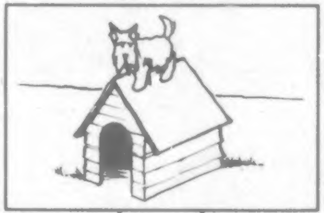
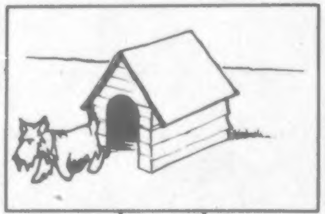
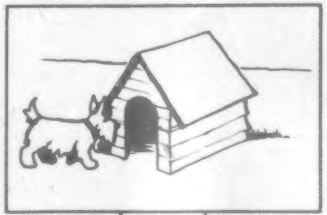
Materials: Test Sheet for each child

Directions: Put the letter of the phrase under the picture which best illustrates the phrase. One picture will not have a letter under it.

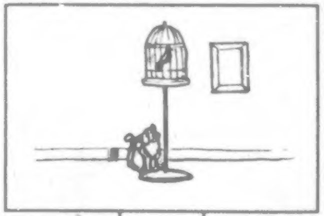
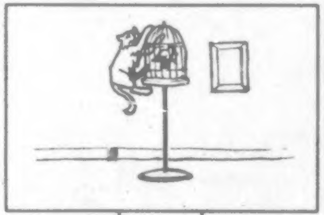
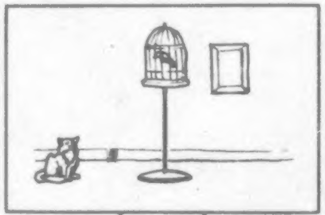
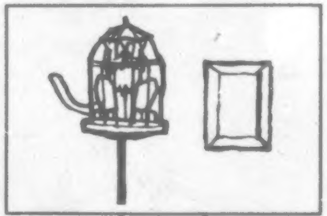
1. A. up the stairs
   B. down the stairs
   C. below the stairs

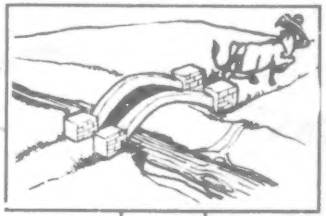
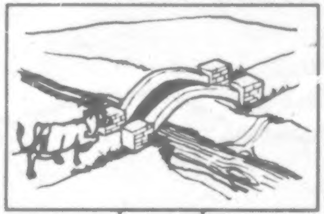
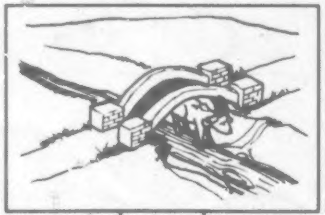
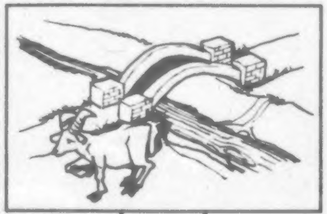
2. A. from the house
   B. in the house
   C. on top of the house

3. A. beneath the cage
   B. near the cage
   C. onto the cage

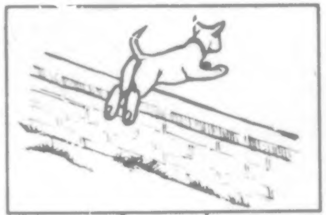
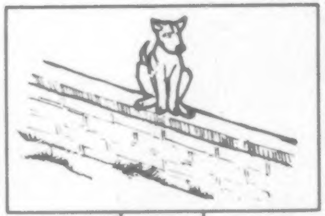
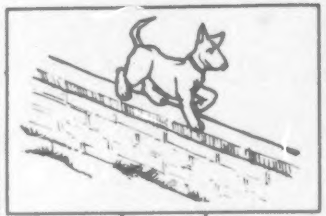
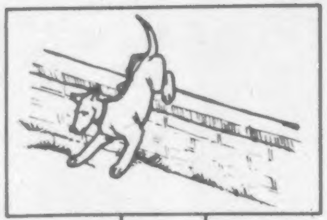
4. A. across the bridge
   B. up to the bridge
   C. under the bridge

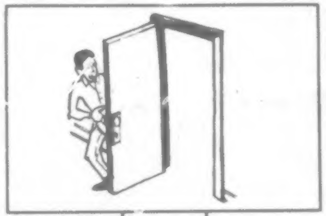
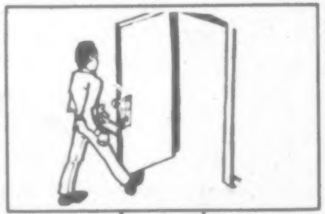
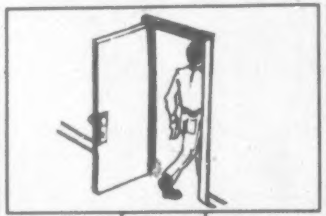
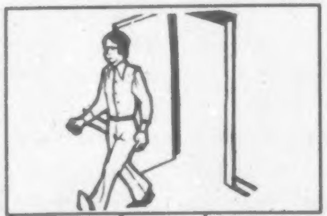
TASK 2

8. c) (3) Uses prepositions as clues to sentence meaning (continued)

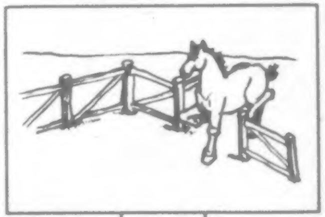
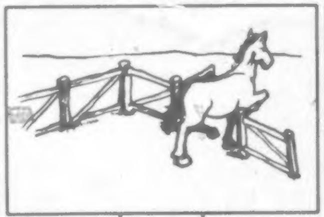
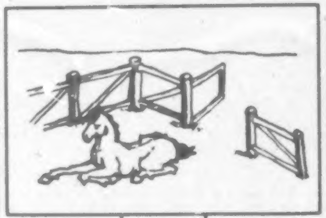
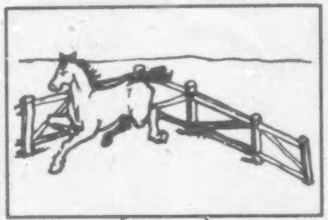
5. A. off the wall
   B. over the wall
   C. along the wall

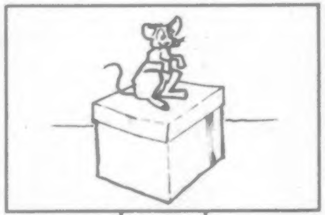
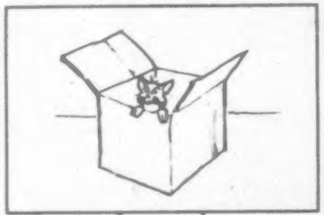
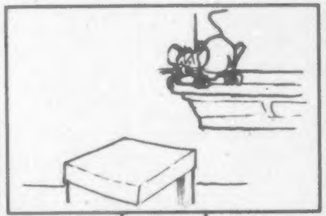
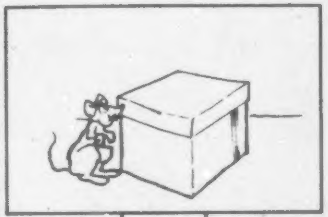
6. A. to the door
   B. behind the door
   C. through the door

7. A. around the yard
   B. out of the yard
   C. into the yard

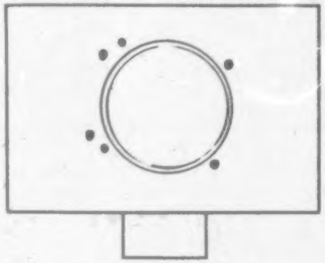
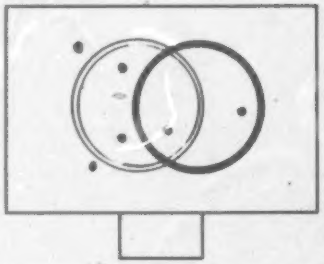
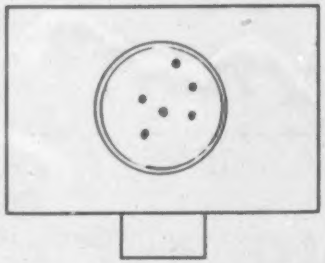
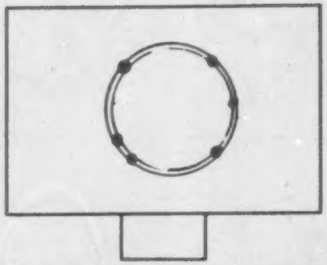
8. A. inside the box
   B. beside the box
   C. upon the box

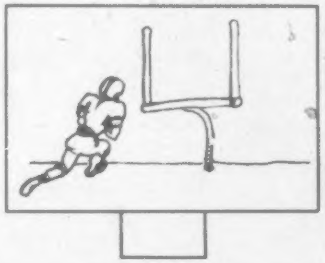
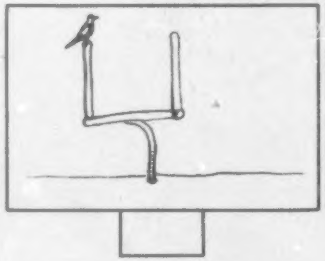
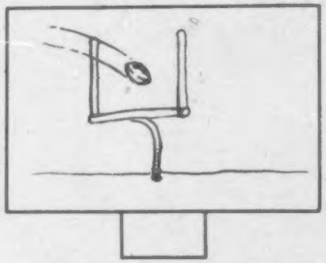
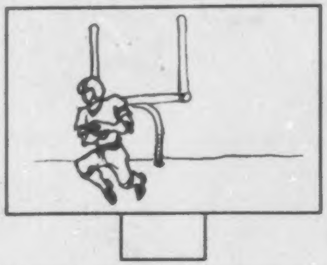
TASK 2

8. c) (3) Uses prepositions as clues to sentence meaning (continued)

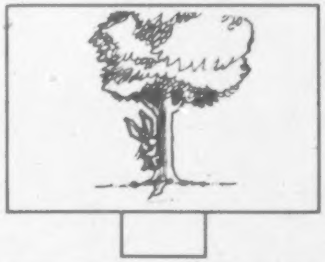
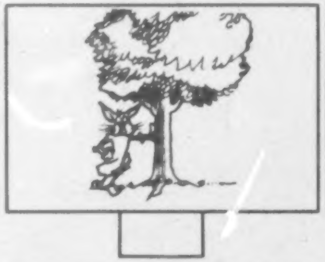
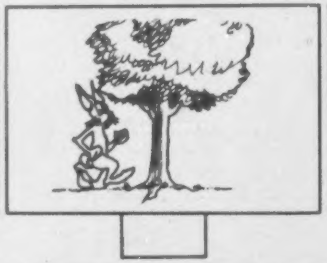
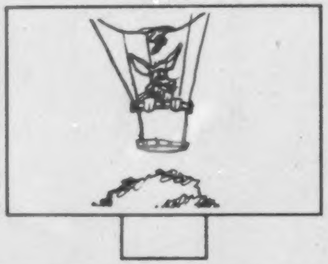
9. A. within the circle
B. outside the circle
C. on the circle

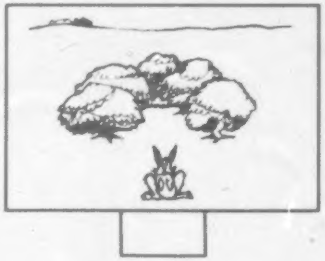
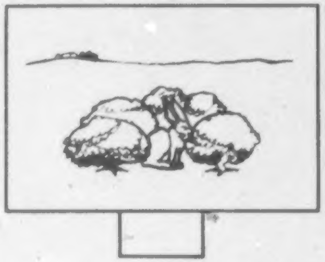
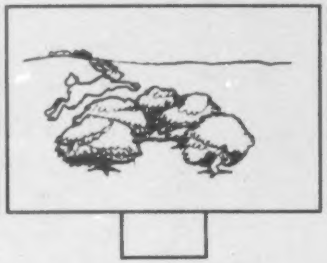
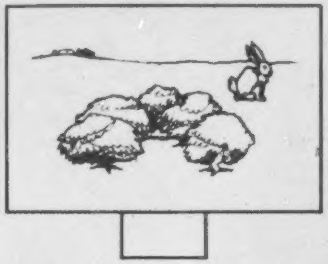
10. A. between the goal posts
B. toward the goal posts
C. away from the goal posts

11. A. against the tree
B. in back of the tree
C. above the tree

12. A. beyond the bushes
B. among the bushes
C. in front of the bushes

8.c) (5) **Task:** Uses structure words (clause markers, or conjunctions) as clues to sentence meaning

Materials: Test sheet for each child

Procedure: Read and follow the directions.

Reading level of paragraph which gives directions to student:
Task 1 – 5^2
Per Fry Readability Graph

TASK 1

The following sentences are about a baseball team that had a lot of different pitchers. The sentences suggest that some of the boys are good pitchers who help the team to play well. Put a G by their names. The sentences also suggest that some of the boys are not as good pitchers and do not help the team as much. Put an N by their names.

1. The team played well after Bob became the pitcher. Bob ______
2. Whenever Tim was the pitcher, the team played well. Tim ______
3. The team played well until Jack became the pitcher. Jack ______
4. After Jerry became the pitcher, the team played well. Jerry ______
5. Because Dave was the pitcher, the team played well. Dave ______
6. Before Larry became the pitcher, the team played well. Larry ______
7. The team played well once Don became the pitcher. Don ______
8. The team played well except when Jake became the pitcher. Jake ______
9. The team played well although Bill became the pitcher. Bill ______
10. Until Fred became the pitcher the team played well. Fred ______
11. So long as Hank was the pitcher the team played well. Hank ______
12. Since Robby became the pitcher, the team has played well. Robby ______
13. The team will play well unless Pete becomes the pitcher. Pete ______
14. The team will play well when Gary becomes the pitcher. Gary ______
15. The team played well even though Sam became the pitcher. Sam ______

8.c) (5) Uses structure words (clause markers, or conjunctions) as clues to sentence meaning (continued)

Reading level of paragraph:
Task 2 – 3
Per Fry Readability Graph

TASK 2

Some boys lived near the woods and sometimes walked through it. Some of them were a little afraid of the woods after dark. Others didn't mind the darkness. Read the following sentences and decide which boys were a little afraid of the woods after dark. Put A by their names. Put N by the names of the boys you think were not afraid of the woods at any time.

1. Jim liked to walk through the woods even though it was dark. Jim ______
2. Jerry didn't like to walk through the woods unless it was dark. Jerry ______
3. After it was dark, Bob liked to walk through the woods. Bob ______
4. Tim liked to walk through the woods except when it was dark. Tim ______
5. Sam liked to walk through the woods before it was dark. Sam ______
6. Jack liked to walk through the woods whenever it was dark. Jack ______
7. Bill hurried home through the woods because it was dark. Bill ______
8. Pete was not afraid of the woods as long as it was not dark. Pete ______
9. Tom liked to walk through the woods although it was dark. Tom ______
10. Dave liked to walk through the woods until it was dark. Dave ______
11. Paul was not afraid of the woods although it was dark. Paul ______
12. Steve was not afraid of the woods unless it was dark. Steve ______
13. Cliff liked to walk in the woods while it was dark. Cliff ______
14. Dick liked to walk through the woods whether or not it was dark. Dick ______
15. If it was dark, Robby did not like to walk through the woods. Robby ______

9. **Task:** Uses typographic clues to phrase and sentence meaning (spacing, capital letters, punctuation marks, variations in type)

Materials: Pupil sheet

Procedure: Have child read the story silently, then read it aloud with appropriate intonation.

Reading level of paragraphs:
Task 1 – 2^1
Task 2 – 2^1
Per Fry Readability Graph

TASK 1

Mrs. Jones, the teacher, asked her class, "Where should we go for our picnic?"

Some children gave their ideas. Then the class voted to go to the park. They all had to bring notes from home. The notes said that their parents would let them go. The teacher had to get a permit to use the park.

The children took sandwiches, fruit, and milk for the picnic. They had ice cream, cake, and cookies for dessert. After lunch the boys played softball. The girls went for a walk. First they saw a blue bird. But it wasn't a real bluebird, only a blue jay. They also saw some blackbirds and one big black bird that was a tame crow.

"LOOK OUT!" Jane suddenly shouted. "There's a snake!" The girls started to run. Then they saw that it was only a long, twisted, black stick.

Late in the afternoon Mrs. Jones called the children together. "Have we picked up all our trash?" she asked. "Are we ready to leave?"

The children were sorry the picnic was over. But they felt happy as they rode back to the school.

TASK 2

Same as Task 1.

10. Reads orally to convey meaning

10.a) Task: Uses context to determine intonation

Materials: Sheet of questions and answers

Procedure: Have the child read the questions and answers silently. Then ask him to read them aloud, changing the stress in the answer each time to make it an appropriate answer to the particular question.

TASK 1

What did the teacher do? The teacher asked me to write that word.

Who asked you to write that word? The teacher asked me to write that word.

Did the teacher ask you to write or say that word? The teacher asked me to write that word.

Did she ask you or your brother to write that word? The teacher asked me to write that word.

Did the teacher tell you or ask you to write that word? The teacher asked me to write that word.

Did she ask you to write that whole sentence or just that word? The teacher asked me to write that word.

TASK 2

What did your mother tell you to eat? My mother told me to eat this sandwich.

Who told you to eat this sandwich? My mother told me to eat this sandwich.

Did she tell you or your brother to eat it? My mother told me to eat this sandwich.

Did she tell you to eat this sandwich or that one? My mother told me to eat this sandwich.

Did she beg you or tell you to eat it? My mother told me to eat this sandwich.

Whose mother told you to eat it? My mother told me to eat this sandwich.

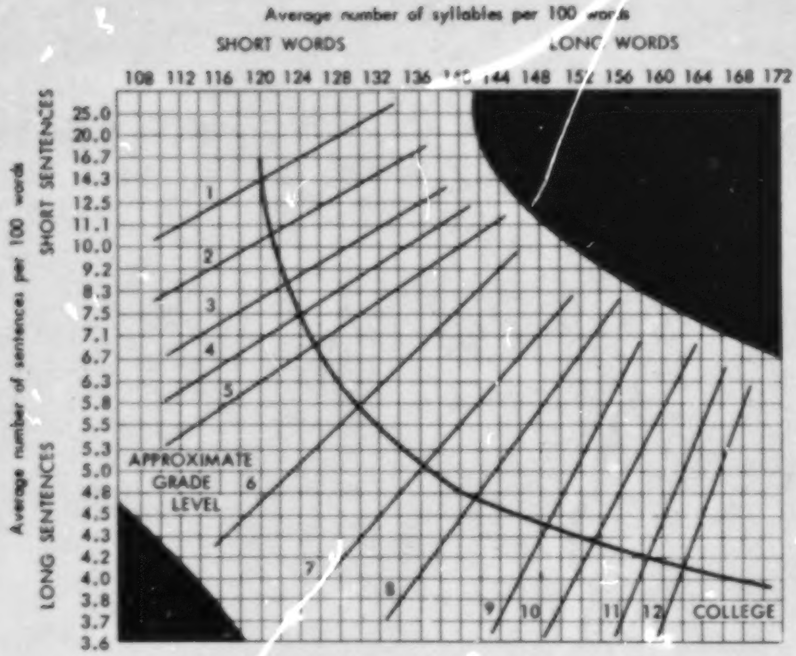
10.b) **Task:** Uses punctuation marks as signals of intonation contours

Materials: Pupil Sheet for Skill No. 9

Procedure: Same directions as for Skill No. 9

GRAPH FOR ESTIMATING READABILITY

by Edward Fry
Rutgers University Reading Center



Procedure:

1. Randomly select three one-hundred-word passages from a book or an article.
2. Plot average number of syllables per 100 words and average number of sentences per 100 words on the above graph to determine area of readability level.
3. Choose more passages per book if great variability is observed.

*Few books will fall in the gray area, but when they do, grade level scores are invalid.

Caution: A graph or formula can give only an approximation of the difficulty level of a piece of writing. They do not evaluate the difficulty of the concepts, the abstractness of the subject matter, nor consider the organization of a text.

Fry, Edward. "A Readability Formula That Saves Time." *Journal of Reading* 11(1968):513-16, 575-78.

READING SKILLS CHECKLIST

	Age						
Skill	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Realizes that written words represent spoken words							
a) Recognizes familiar words in environment	▒	▒	▒				
b) Recognizes frequently used words at sight	▒	▒	▒				
2. Relates alphabetic symbols to language sounds in context							
a) Recognizes consonants and vowels as speech sounds that are combined to make spoken words	▒	▒	▒				
b) Identifies letter that represents beginning sound of a word	▒	▒	▒				
c) Identifies letter that represents beginning sound of several words	▒	▒	▒				
3. Relates letter patterns in a left-to-right sequence to corresponding patterns of language sounds (words) a) Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel-consonant/ phoneme pattern represented by: (1) CVC letters							
(a) With no initial C letter		▒	▒				
(b) With differing initial C letters		▒	▒				
(c) With differing final C letters		▒	▒				
(d) With differing medial V letters		▒	▒				
(2) CVC + *e*							
(a) With no initial C letter		▒	▒				
(b) With differing initial C letters		▒	▒				
(c) With differing final C letters		▒	▒				
(d) With differing medial V letters		▒	▒	▒			
(3) CV + doubled C letters							
(a) With no initial C letter		▒	▒				
(b) With final *-ff, -ll, -ss, -tt, -zz*		▒	▒				
(c) With final *-all, -oll, -oss, -ull*		▒	▒				
(d) With final *-ck*		▒	▒				
(4) CVVC							
(a) With no initial C letter		▒	▒	▒			
(b) With no final C letter		▒	▒	▒			
(c) With initial and final C letters		▒	▒	▒			
(5) C digraphs							
(a) Initial		▒	▒	▒			
(b) Final		▒	▒	▒			
(c) C digraph + *e*				▒	▒		
b) Recodes one-syllable words with consonant clusters (1) Initial							
(a) C or C digraph + *r*		▒	▒	▒			
(b) C + *l*		▒	▒	▒			
(c) *s* + C		▒	▒	▒			
(d) *qu-, dw-, tw-, wh-*		▒	▒	▒			
(e) 3 C letters = 3 sounds			▒	▒			
(2) Final							
(a) CC		▒	▒	▒			
(b) C + C digraph			▒	▒			
(c) *-ald, -alt, -ild, -ind, -old, -ost*		▒	▒	▒			
(d) CC*e*				▒	▒		

☐ Objective not introduced

☒ Objective partially attained

⧄ Objective begun

■ Objective attained

TEACHING READING SKILLS, Bulletin No. 246
Montgomery County Public Schools, 1971

Skill	**Age** 5	6	7	8	9	10	11
c) Recodes one-syllable words with /consonant-vowel/ phoneme pattern represented by:							
(1) CV or CCV		▨	▨	▨			
(2) CV + *e* or *y*		▨	▨	▨			
d) Recodes two-syllable words ending in *y*		▨	▨				
e) Recodes words with V letter followed by *r*		▨	▨	▨			
f) Recodes words with *c* or *g* followed by *e, i,* or *y*		▨	▨	▨			
g) Recodes words with letters which represent no sound			▨	▨	▨		
h) Recodes frequently used words which do not conform to sound-spelling patterns		▨	▨	▨	▨		
4. Uses structural clues to word recognition							
a) Decodes compound words		▨	▨	▨	▨		
b) Decodes words with inflectional and derivational affixes							
(1) Noun plural inflections		▨	▨	▨			
(2) Noun possessive inflections		▨	▨	▨			
(3) Verb number and tense inflections		▨	▨	▨			
(4) Adjective and adverb comparison inflections			▨	▨			
(5) Derivational prefixes and suffixes			▨	▨	▨	▨	▨
c) Decodes contractions		▨	▨	▨			
5. Uses knowledge of one-syllable word patterns to recode words of more than one syllable							
a) Recognizes syllables in spoken words as units of language consisting of a vowel alone, a vowel preceded or followed by consonants, or a syllabic consonant		▨	▨	▨			
b) When a V letter is followed by two different C letters and a V letter (VCCV), pronounces first syllable with a short vowel			▨	▨	▨		
c) When a V letter is followed by doubled C letters, pronounces the first syllable with a short vowel followed by a single consonant sound			▨	▨	▨		
d) Uses medial C clusters as a guide to pronunciation			▨	▨	▨		
e) When a V letter is followed by a single C letter and another V letter (VCV), pronounces the first syllable as an open syllable with a glided (long) vowel or with a schwa, or as a closed syllable ending in the consonant, with an unglided (short) vowel			▨	▨	▨		
f) Pronounces medial C digraphs as single consonant sounds			▨	▨	▨		
g) When a word ends in C + *le*, uses spelling pattern as a guide to pronouncing stressed first syllable, and pronounces last syllable as consonant + /l/ or /əl/			▨	▨	▨		
h) Decodes words in which adjacent V letters represent two vowel sounds in separate syllables				▨	▨		
i) Combines pronounced syllables and adjusts pronunciation to produce a word with sounds and stress heard in normal speech			▨	▨	▨	▨	
6. Decodes abbreviations							
a) Of common titles		▨	▨				
b) Of days, months, parts of addresses, measurement terms		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨

Skill	Age						
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
7. Uses context (semantic clues)							
a) To anticipate and verify recoding of printed words into spoken words		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨
b) To hypothesize meaning of word not in oral vocabulary			▨	▨	▨	▨	▨
c) To decode homographs		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	
d) To decode homophones			▨	▨	▨	▨	
8. Uses grammatical structure (syntactic clues) to derive meaning							
a) Uses word order clues		▨	▨	▨			
b) Uses inflectional and derivational contrasts		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨
c) Uses structure words as clues to sentence meaning							
(1) Noun determiners: articles, possessive adjectives, demonstrative adjectives, cardinal and ordinal adjectives, indefinite adjectives, interrogative adjectives		▨	▨	▨			
(2) Verb markers, or auxiliaries		▨	▨	▨			
(3) Phrase markers, or prepositions		▨	▨	▨			
(4) Question markers		▨	▨	▨	▨		
(5) Clause markers, or conjunctions			▨	▨	▨		
(6) Sentence connectors, or coordinating conjunctions		▨	▨	▨	▨		
(7) Intensifiers			▨	▨	▨		
(8) Starters			▨	▨	▨		
9. Uses typographic clues to phrase and sentence meaning							
a) Spacing as a signal of structural units		▨	▨				
b) Capital letters as signals of sentence beginnings, proper nouns		▨	▨				
c) Punctuation							
(1) Marks within words (apostrophe, hyphen)		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	
(2) End marks (period, question mark, exclamation point)		▨	▨				
(3) Internal marks (comma, semicolon, colon, dash)			▨	▨	▨		
(4) Special marks (quotation marks, parentheses)		▨	▨	▨	▨		
d) Variations in type size, face, and placement			▨	▨	▨	▨	
10. Reads orally to convey meaning							
a) Uses context to determine intonation		▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨
b) Uses punctuation marks as signals of intonation contours							
(1) Reads simple statements with a normal intonation contour /231/ and primary stress on last structure in sentence		▨	▨	▨	▨		
(2) Uses normal intonation contour /231/ for questions requiring a substantive answer		▨	▨	▨	▨		
(3) Uses "question" contour /223/ for questions requiring a yes-or-no answer		▨	▨	▨	▨		
(4) Uses /3/ or /4/ pitch and moves primary stress according to context and exclamation point		▨	▨	▨	▨		
(5) Uses appropriate pause where signalled by a comma in series, around an appositive, or between clauses			▨	▨	▨	▨	▨